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ABSTRACT

Making general vocational education available in Western Europe is the result of the rapid expansion of jobs available in commerce and administration, higher standards in general education producing people capable of performing the tasks, and educational motivation. Areas of commercial and administrative activity needing employers are distributive trades and salesmanship, government, technical industry, and international trade. Caution must be exerted to ensure that general vocational education remains general. The structure of commercial education may be considered by function of employment, by the type of school, whether schooling is to be part or full-time, apprenticeship schemes, and correspondence education. Among the aims, skills, and aptitudes of commercial education are listening comprehension and verbal skills, communication skills, computer skills, knowledge and references sources, possession of initiative and adaptability, and capacity for working as part of a group. Common reference points are needed as a base for curriculum design. A wide range of teaching methods must be employed in business and administrative education. Traditional methods of evaluation must be reexamined and professional continuous learning opportunities should be provided. Education is necessarily viewed as a life-long process. (AG)

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education for business and administration

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Since 1963 the CCC has been publishing, in English and French, a series of works of general interest entitled " Education in Europe ", which records the results of expert studies and intergovernmental investigations conducted within the framework of its programme. A list of these publications will be found at the end of the volume.

Some of the volumes in this series have been published in French by Armand Colin of Paris and in English by Harrapis of London.

These works to which the present study belongs are being supplemented by a series of " companion volumes " of a more specialised nature.

General Editor :

The Director of Education and of Cultural and Scientific Affairs, Council of Europe, Strasbourg (France).

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EDUCATION FOR BUSINESS AND ADMINISTRATION

A STUDY OF DEVELOPING PROSPECTS IN COMMERCIAL EDUCATION IN WESTERN EUROPE

by

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FOREWORD

This study of commercial education was prepared by Dr. Bonney Rust as one of a series of reports on secondary school subjects in Europe undertaken for the Council of Europe by the comparative studies section of Oxford University Department of Educational Studies. The reports, some of which have already been published either in the Council of Europe series, " European Curriculum Studies ", or commercially, have dealt up to now with the following subjects: Latin, mathematics, modern languages, physics, chemistry, biology, civic and social education, history and economics.

It is necessary to state, as is customary, that in writing their reports authors do not necessarily represent the views of either the Council of Europe or Oxford University Department of Educational Studies.

It remains to thank the permanent officials of the Division for General and Technical Education of the Council of Europe, who, as on previous occasions, have provided every help and assistance in the preparation of this report.

W.D. Halls

Oxford Council of Europe Study
for the Evaluation of the
Curriculum and Examinations

PREFACE

By the end of this century, it is possible that half the working population of Western Europe will be employed in commerce and administration. This vast extension of a particular form of occupational activity will require an educational system appropriately designed to educate and train the personnel.

Even now, education for commerce and administration is a seriously neglected area of educational research. This past neglect enables the Council of Europe to claim proper credit for the initiation of three European conferences on aspects of commercial education, and for commissioning this study.

The Council of Europe invited the Oxford University Department of Educational Studies to undertake the research involved and the subsequent presentation of the study based on the research material.

At first glance, the project looked extremely difficult, for not only is there a wide variety of approach between countries providing commercial and administrative education, but there is a considerable amount of variety within most countries. The eleven *Länder* of the Federal Republic of Germany may each have a different educational policy. Even within the United Kingdom, there are different educational systems for Scotland and for Northern Ireland, and each of about 100 Local Education Authorities may decide upon a different policy in relation to commercial and administrative education.

A look backwards in time at Western Europe's educational systems thus showed a highly differentiated picture.

Fortunately, as the research proceeded, it became clear that Western Europe's educational systems were growing very slowly towards each other, and that plans for the future would re-inforce this tendency.

This slowly growing harmonisation of educational systems for the future is more clearly visible at upper secondary level than at any other. This was fortunate, for the study was intended mainly to concern itself with education at the upper secondary level.

The information upon which the study is based came from all the member States of the Council of Europe; from many separate educational institutions; and from a small number of very knowledgeable professional advisers in commercial and administrative education.

To all of these sources the author extends thanks for the patience and ingenuity with which his requests for information were met. Friendly advice and expertise from many sources have provided the most valuable aspects to the study.

Nevertheless, all views and suggestions expressed within the study are those of the author. He wishes to express his thanks to the Council of Europe not only for its support and guidance, but also for its tolerance and willingness to permit him a wide area of discretion in the presentation of *Education for Business and Administration*.

W. Bonney Rust

Comparative Studies Section,
Oxford University Department of Educational Studies

CHAPTER 1

THE NEEDS OF COMMERCE AND ADMINISTRATION

The most important decision of our lives is taken when we choose our future occupation. Pascal remarked that this decision is made by chance. Pascal's observation was not without truth. Lack of information has misled many young people into occupations determined more by luck or parental choice than by child potential or career opportunity.

Today we find that many young people are consciously choosing a career. We can reasonably predict that the future is certain to see a more careful matching of personal potential with type of occupation; a linkage of future employment prospects with current subjects of study; and a more conscious vocational interest associated with general academic education.

The expanding role of commercial education

Some technical aspects of general vocational education are not easy to provide concurrently with general academic education. Engineering, electronics and the construction industry include occupations which, for education and training, demand both expensive equipment and scarce teaching staff. These difficulties are not nearly so serious in the commercial and administrative occupations. Training a clerk needs personal skills such as good verbal communication and aural comprehension. A secretary may need a typewriter, but she can learn her shorthand at a desk, and her capacity to manage visitors by role-playing in a classroom. Accountants, company secretaries, statisticians, personnel executives and salesmen can all be taught the skills of their chosen occupations without extensive equipment, and, with a little imagination, in conventional educational buildings.

The provision of general vocational education is therefore the easiest of all kinds of vocational education to associate with the more conventional school subjects. Ease of implementation as a reason for change, however, would make little impact on the educational world if it were not also true that three additional factors are reinforcing the

growing tendency to associate aspects of commercial and administrative education with more traditionally academic styles of education. These factors are:

1. the rapid expansion of the jobs available in commerce and administration;

2. the rise in standards of general education which produces more people capable of subsequently entering the specialisms of commercial or administrative occupations;

3. the educational motivation which derives from the provision of school courses leading towards a range of occupations rather than solely to a range of examinations.

These considerations lead on to a further one: the fact that there are two parties to every contract of employment. These parties are:

(*a*) the employer and

(*b*) the employee.

The employer can state the qualities and skills required of his employee. It is for the potential employee (advised by parents and tutors) to prepare for the world of employment.

If we look back no more than twenty years we can see that commercial education was relatively unimportant in the priorities of educational provision in most Western European countries. The Federal Republic of Germany offered a well developed commercial apprenticeship scheme, but, in general, commercial education was associated mainly with office skills such as shorthand, type-writing and simple book-keeping.

The past twenty years have seen a revolutionary expansion and development of commercial education.

A rising proportion of tertiary economic activity

A major cause of the revolution in commercial education has been the rising proportion of total economic activity devoted to the provision of services and administration.

Primary economic activity consists of such first-stage production processes as mining and agriculture. Secondary economy activity means the manufacturing processes which can be developed from mining and agriculture. Tertiary economic activity is the provision of manufactured goods as well as services to the consumer. The economic history of all Western European countries over the past twenty years reveals a steadily growing proportion of economic resources devoted to tertiary activity. At the same time, all the economies of Western Europe have experienced substantial increases in total production.

The immediate employment consequence of these changes in forms of economic activity is to diminish the jobs available in e.g., coal mining and agriculture, to expand manufacturing employment slightly, and to increase employment in commerce, services and administration a great deal.

The educational service rarely reacts quickly to rapid changes in economic activity. Yet the education service has re-orientated itself fairly well towards the expansion of commercial and administrative occupations. We shall see that this re-orientation needs reinforcing; and that some educational systems still need re-shaping in order to accommodate the continued expansion of commercial and administrative education which we must expect to provide in the future.

The distributive trades and salesmanship

Education and training for the specialist spheres of salesmanship and for the distribution of goods and services were highly developed in the United States of America before World War II. The techniques and supporting education and training only received their real impetus in Western Europe after recovery from that same war. Commerce had become a matter of sharper buying and selling. A rising standard of living brought more effective demand to the customers. The rise of new media of communication required a more intensive effort by firms to promote sales and to differentiate products. Distribution and sales education developed and expanded in different ways in accordance with the different histories of commercial education in different countries, but education for "commerce" began to include a substantial sector devoted to salesmanship and distribution by the late 1960s.

A Council of Europe conference at Munich in 1970 recommended a conference on teaching relating to the distribution sector, including consumer education, and the Committee for General and Technical Education was considering a working paper on this topic during 1971.

Education for business functions

One of the earliest aims of education was to provide the economy with employees who could read and write and learn simple numerical skills. No doubt there were more idealistic aims, some spiritual, and some intended to develop the individual's potential. But good communication through oral and written means, together with arithmetical facility were necessities for the business concerns which were rapidly growing in size and complexity during the second half of the 19th century.

A glance at business structures in the second half of the 20th century reveals that all aspects of business functions have become yet more complicated. These functions require higher skills. Who then is to provide these skills? Some employers undertake limited training functions, but most employers now expect to recruit employees already equipped by school or college for a wide range of office occupations.

School systems and colleges of further education are beginning to provide more and more for the expanding sector of business administration. Not only are typists and shorthand writers educated and trained within schools, but so also are skilled clerks, executive assistants, book-keepers, statistical clerks, and even computer programmers.

Employment in the public corporation

Since 1945 there has been a large growth in the number of industries brought under public control, yet still pursuing commercial activities. These "public corporations" include within Western Europe many of the public services, such as the provision of gas or coal, or of electricity. Publicly owned industries include most airlines, much of the steel industry and a high proportion of railway systems.

This sector of economic activity requires much the same skills as those necessary to administer a business firm operating for private profit. Employees must be prepared for all the same clerical, executive and administrative occupations. Salesmen, accountants, lawyers and economists are just as essential in public industry as in private. The only difference lies in the fact that the public corporation is accountable to the public and that accountability must imply an even higher level of good administration than is to be expected in the private sector.

Education for employment in central and local government

Many of the same skills we require for the administration of large business concerns or public corporations are needed to make local and central government offices work efficiently. Good recording processes, first-class filing systems, letter-writing processes, minuting of meetings and recording of decisions, accounting for expenditure and invoicing for payment, all these patterns of activity call upon types of employee similar to those in private or public industry.

During 1970 the Local Government Training Board of the United Kingdom undertook an extensive survey of the types of activity undertaken by administrative and clerical staff. The results include the following:

Clerical Grades 1 and 2

	Percentage of total work time
Most frequent activities	
Writing/drawing/calculating/typing	42
Sorting/allocating	18
Inspecting/checking	18
Talking/listening	7
Issuing/receiving	5
Most frequent types of work	
Forms/records/lists/files	29
Accounting work	15
Letters/memos	11
Wages/salaries/money	10
Post	6
Reports/papers	5

These results show how similar are the activities of a clerk in local government in the United Kingdom to those expected of a clerk in private industry. It is clear that the same sectors of education will be called upon to provide suitable personnel in both these different types of economic or administrative activity.

Office-style employment in technical industry

There remains one further area of employment which uses office skills to an unexpectedly large extent. This area of employment is that commonly regarded as " productive " rather than administrative. The economist does not recognise the same distinction between productive and non-productive employment, but the general public does tend to think of the engineering industry or the chemical industry as employing those who make products, rather than those who administer the processes. Yet the Engineering Industry Training Board of the United Kingdom found in 1970 that 14 % of all its employees could

be described as office workers. The 1970 Manpower Survey of the Chemical and Allied Industry forecast that by 1975 there would be substantial increases in office, management services, financial personnel and special staff, but decreases in many of the traditional trades typically associated with production industry such as building craftsmen, carpenters, welders, painters and sheet metal workers. It is thus clear that, even in industrial concerns, there is a substantial proportion of clerical, commercial and administrative employment.

Relative importance to total employment

All the areas of employment set out above begin to reveal how large a proportion of all employment is that devoted to commercial, clerical, executive and administrative work. Estimates of this proportion have been made of Western European economies. The smallest estimate suggests 25 % and the largest reaches to 50 %, i.e. between one in four, and one in two of all employment in the countries of Western Europe is devoted to the employment types we have set out above. Two examples may suffice to support these estimates. The Central Training Council of the United Kingdom estimated in 1966 that about 25 % of all young people leaving school would go to work in an office. The Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development estimated that in the Federal Republic of Germany, over half the 1.3 million persons undergoing training in 1969 (under the Vocational Education Law) were seeking qualifications in the commercial occupations.

The time has come to abandon the essentially limited concept contained in the phrase " commercial education ". This chapter is entitled " The needs of commerce and administration " in order to indicate how extensive are the educational provisions necessary to meet the commercial and administrative employment needs of firms, of voluntary agencies, of distribution, of public corporations, of central and local government and even of technical " production " industry.

Exchange of goods and services

It is important also to discard the misconception that some economic activities are " productive " (i.e. making goods) while others are " unproductive ", e.g. providing services. To the economist (and to the teacher of commerce) the provision of any good or service is productive provided only that people will pay sufficient for that good or service to keep the producer in business.

Even the provision of local and central government services is economically " productive " because these services add to the totality of standards of living within the community.

These services, which may include parks and playgrounds, schools and satellites, security and social services, roads and refuse collections are all part of that exchange of goods and services which make up the gross national product from which each individual's standard of living is derived.

Machines are progressively taking over the more physically demanding processes of mining, agriculture and manufacturing. Hence, we should not be surprised that the provision of services is employing a progressively rising proportion of all workers. Without the administration to distribute goods and services to consumers we should all starve. Let no one therefore regard " office workers " as " unproductive ".

Extension to international trade

Exchange of goods and services takes place not only between individuals or firms in the same country; exchange also takes place between countries. The exchange takes place of course only when both parties to the transaction gain a net advantage, i.e. when the end result is a rise in the standard of living in each country. This international exchange is of supreme importance to standards of living, for it permits countries to specialise in producing those goods or services in which their comparative advantage is greatest (or their net disadvantage least). So runs the economist's " law of comparative costs ". Its meaning is simple, for it merely records the fact the specialising in production creates a lower cost per unit of production and this for example enables the accountant to sell his services for a salary, just as it enables Canada to exchange wheat for motor cars.

None of this exchange could operate effectively without clerical, administrative and financial organisations. We must literally thank an " office " for our daily bread.

Academic education and " office " education

So far we have tried to outline the many areas of commercial and administrative activity which need to be provided with appropriately educated employees. These employees are predominantly " office " in type, and it would be simple if we could use the term " office employment " and " office education " to cover all commercial and administrative employment and education. Unfortunately there are some aspects of employment within our current ambit which do not take place in offices. Shop assistants and many salesmen do not work in offices, though education and training for such employment is often provided in the " commercial " school or college because of the

association of shop assistants and salesmen with commerce. It is therefore necessary to continue to use the term " commercial and administrative education " because no single generic word is available.

By this term " commercial and administrative education ", we mean education intended to provide for those who intend to become employed in those aspects of industry and commerce which concern the buying and selling of goods and services; the associated clerical processes of recording and communicating; with the distribution of goods of services; the provision of goods and services through public administration; and the associated professional services such as accountancy, banking and insurance.

Commercial and administrative education appears now to be gaining status in relation to the former pre-eminence of traditional academic education. The school system of Sweden, for example, now incorporates aspects of its former commercial high schools into the new, comprehensive *gymnasieskola*. Economics itself, as a subject of study, is beginning to be accepted in many of the academic secondary schools of Western Europe, though the innovation is recent in some countries such as Luxembourg (1968) and the Netherlands (1968). Austria and Italy still did not, in 1972, admit economics as a subject for study at the academic secondary school, though the way is open in Austria for the study of economics at the *Handelsgymnasium* and in Italy at the *Istituto Tecnico Commerciale*.

Nevertheless, we can see a clear tendency towards the extension of the traditionally commercial subjects into streams of general academic education. Purely academic education appears to be declining slightly in importance, because such education appears to be less relevant to the growing areas of employment opportunities in commerce and administration.

General education versus vocational education

If it is true that " general " education is becoming permeated by " vocational " education, then some educationists may be expected to react violently against such a development. In the past, it has been customary for " vocational " education to be regarded as inferior to " general " education. This attitude, and even this distinction, may have been justified half a century ago when educational idealists aimed for an educational system to develop the best in every individual without reference to future occupation. The concept stemmed from education at university level, where it had more relevance. The aim then, and to some extent now, was to produce a well-educated person who (if employed at all) was capable of undertaking almost any occupation.

Specialisation of subject and the vast extensions of university education to wider sectors of the population have undermined the concept of education wholly unrelated to future occupation. It is possible to argue now that every form of education is leading towards some kind of occupation.

Hence the former prestige of " general " education as against " vocational " education has become open to question. " Relevance " of study is of significance to every college student and to most school pupils.

Nevertheless, many educationists still use the terms " general " and " vocational " education as if they were wholly contrasting styles of education, so perhaps the time has come to discard the outdated contrast, and adopt a more useful terminology.

A tripartite division of educational types

It is becoming clear that, instead of a sharp contrast between " general " education and " vocational " education, there is arising a continuum. At one extreme of this continuum is education wholly unrelated to future occupation. We may describe this education as " general academic education ". At the opposite extreme of the continuum is education specifically designed to train a person to undertake a specific occupation such as a bricklayer or a typist. We may term this education " specific vocational education ".

Between these two extremes lies a whole range of types of education which contain elements both of " general " education and " vocational " education. In the upper secondary school systems of Western Europe, the two types of education can be found side by side, but in different proportions varying with the abilities and interests of different groups of pupils. In some schools, technical or commercial subjects predominate and are simply supported by " general " subjects such as the mother tongue, a numerical subject, or general science, or a modern foreign language.

It is clear, therefore, that we need a description for a growing sector of education which is neither wholly " general " nor wholly " vocational ". That sector of education we may designate as " general vocational education ".

Now we may find it easier to distinguish types of education, for we have a tripartite division, viz :

1. general academic education,
2. general vocational education, and
3. specific vocational education.

Education for commerce and administration falls very much into the category of general vocational education. Such education is preparing pupils and students for a broad range of occupations, but is (in general) not aiming to send into the world of work anyone trained to undertake immediately a specific occupation.

It is a major contention of this study of commercial and administrative education that general vocational education is equal in educational value to general academic education and should therefore be accorded equality of status with general academic education.

The dual output of upper secondary education

Let us recall that the output of the upper secondary school of the future will lead either to employment or directly into some form of full-time higher education. This duality of output has been true of the United Kingdom throughout this century, but it has not always been true of other countries. In Sweden or the Federal Republic of Germany, the academic secondary school has led very largely to higher education. This singleness of aim had its profound effect upon the curriculum and methods of teaching in the academic secondary school. By contrast, the technical and commercial secondary education systems led directly to employment, and there was very little opportunity for pupils of such schools to go on to full-time higher education.

The advent of the comprehensive secondary school in many countries of Western Europe is changing this pattern. Comprehensive secondary schools are devising patterns of education which at the upper secondary level (15-16 years to 18-19 years) are incorporating the former academic, technical and commercial schools into one. Sweden is an excellent example, for there the new *gymnasieskola* has made exactly that change from 1971.

Such comprehensive schools are already making two major changes in education. Firstly, the school is to provide a dual output, i.e. both to employment and to higher education. Secondly, the educational system is re-designing examination systems so that opportunities for entry into full-time higher education are open to all the pupils of the school whether they may be academically, technically, or commercially orientated in their study programmes, i.e. general vocational education is beginning to achieve parity of status with general academic education.

We must expect the educational philosophy as well as the practicalities of teaching method to change in such comprehensive schools. More than half the pupils will be leaving the school to start work and (very probably) at the same age as the remaining pupils will transfer to higher education. It will no longer be possible for such schools to provide a curriculum or to use teaching methods solely designed for those aiming to enter higher education.

A widening ability range in the comprehensive secondary school

The necessity to re-shape the functions and methods of the comprehensive secondary school will be re-inforced by the growing tendency for more and more pupils to stay at school until the age of eighteen — whatever their personal capacity may be. This tendency to stay on longer and longer in full-time education is characteristic of all Western European countries. It must inevitably mean that the ability range will widen of pupils in the schools and colleges up to the stage when the entire ability range is present in the upper secondary school. Whether the pupils aged 14-15 to 18-19 are at school or college, this wide ability range will have to be taught in ways which are suited to the whole ability range. Thus, we may find that general vocational education will, in many comprehensive schools, become the norm, and general academic education will occupy a supporting and complementary role.

If our previous assumptions are correct, then these new comprehensive schools will be sending up to half their output of pupils into commercial and administrative occupations. Such schools must be profoundly affected by this factor in every aspect of their educational provision.

School leavers and employment forecasting

It will not be sufficient for schools and colleges to provide education for commerce and administration unless the employment needs match the output of pupils. Nothing (apart from war) is more disastrous to a society than a large number of well-educated people who become unemployable. General vocational education should provide for a range of occupations within a given type of employment, but as soon as employment is entered the individual becomes potentially specific to that employment. Training within the employment makes him (or her) more specific. Specialisation of function within the employment reinforces the same tendency. If a technological change occurs (or the employer goes bankrupt) the individual may, at the best, require re-training before re-employment. At the worst, unemployment leads to unemployability.

The world of commerce and administration appeared relatively free of technological unemployment until the introduction of business data processing through computers. Yet it is not beyond imagination for newly developed technologies to replace most of the computer operators who have been so rapidly introduced over the decade 1960-70.

These considerations lead to two conclusions:

1. Schools and colleges must be provided with the best available employment forecasting when giving career advice.

2. General vocational education must consciously retain its general nature, and deliberately seek to avoid the dangers of admitting specific vocational education to the school.

CHAPTER 2

THE STRUCTURE OF COMMERCIAL EDUCATION

This chapter is taking shape during January of 1972. If from this date we looked five years backwards in time, we should find a highly differentiated picture of the structures of commercial education in the countries of Western Europe. Each country has its own historical tradition, its own philosophy and its distinct and evolving place in the industrial and commercial scene. Variety of educational provision was essential and right in the past.

Western Europe however is growing traditions of its own. A similarity of ways of thought is becoming evident. Business and commercial procedures are becoming more and more similar as they become more international. Markets extend over country boundaries because small enterprises become larger and grow into vast international combines. Monetary rates of exchange become a matter of decision for all the major countries of the Western world.

It is not surprising then, if, when we look forward five years from 1972, we discover a growing similarity in social and economic structures of Western European countries. This growing similarity of social and economic structure is beginning to be reflected in the educational provision of Western European countries.

New education laws were passed, or came into operation, in almost all the countries of Western Europe during the period 1968-72. Many of these governmental proposals have extended the school-leaving age; several have reconstructed secondary education on comprehensive lines; general vocational education is accorded a more important place in secondary education; and commercial and administrative education begins to show up as the largest single area within general vocational education.

Let us repeat the conceptual division made in Chapter 1 of broad categories of education. These were:

— general academic education (unrelated to occupation);

— general vocational education (related to broad areas of occupation);

— specific vocational education (related to specific occupation).

We are here primarily concerned with general vocational education. In order to establish the relative value both to the individual and to society of general vocational education compared with general academic education, it is essential to pose some questions.

1. What is the difference to the individual and society between studying a subject (say economics), (*a*) for the purpose of entering higher education, and (*b*) for the purpose of entering an occupation?

2. Why is it that the study of classical languages (Greek and Latin) appears to form the basis of good acceptable general academic education, while the study of modern foreign languages for the purpose of entering commerce is not so acceptable?

3. Are qualities of mind necessarily developed better if study is undertaken without an occupational aim? Does any sizeable body of persons ever study without an occupational aim?

4. Is any person or institution capable of determining what sort of qualities of mind and character necessarily derive from any given type of education or combination of subjects?

Those who unalterably support the case for general academic education will make efforts to answer the questions. To those, however, who believe that qualities of mind and character develop from many sources other than the educational institutions (e.g. homes, parents, church, friends, social philosophy), there is no answer to the questions put, because to such people modern general vocational education offers opportunities to human beings to develop potentiality at least as well as general academic education.

In this connection, it is valuable to repeat the view expressed by educationists from many countries at the Munich Conference of June 1970. In reference to the educational and instructional functions of the teacher of commercial subjects, the representatives stated that " Education, in general, aims at developing the human personality through intellectual, cultural, technical, physical and moral training ".

These aims resemble those expressed by A D C. Peterson. In his book *Arts and Science in the Sixth Form*, Peterson refers to a broad general education (" liberal " education) as developing the intellect in as many modes of thinking as possible. These main modes of thinking covered the logical, empirical, moral and aesthetic aspects. Professor P.H. Hirst in his book *Liberal Education and the Nature of Knowledge* has followed Peterson's categories to some extent. Professor Hirst refers to seven major forms of knowledge which can help to develop the logical, empirical, moral and aesthetic aspects of man. These major forms of knowledge are:

mathematics,

human sciences,

history,
religion,
literature,
the fine arts,
philosophy.

It would make an interesting exercise to study educational courses regarded as general academic education, and compare them with appropriate courses of general vocational education in order to discover how far each course adequately covered the categories set out above. In terms of subjects covered (apart from religion and philosophy), it seems distinctly possible that many courses of commercial education in the United Kingdom over the age range 16-19 are more broadly educational than the three highly specialised subjects typically studied at the upper secondary level in the academic streams of secondary schools. It is even likely that the stronger motivation which derives from a general vocational aim accentuates the power of the educational system to develop the best which is within the individual. It is this motivational aspect which is now leading the secondary schools of many countries to introduce aspects of general vocational education into curricula formerly wholly dominated by general academic aims.

Motivation is of considerable consequence in the structure of commercial education. Both student and teacher have clear and definable aims which are not solely related to an examination.

The commercial education to which we refer here is primarily that provided at the upper secondary level, i.e. for pupils of the age range 15-16 to 18-19. Lower secondary level may generally be considered as covering the age range 10-11 to 15-16. Post-secondary education is that which follows the age 18-19 and is often termed higher education.

A pattern of description by function of employment

Until recently, it has been difficult to devise a generalised structure for commercial education both because of its variety from country to country, and because of the extreme ranges of age and ability which could be included within educational institutions offering commercial education. However, we have already indicated that the types of course provision in different countries are becoming less disparate, partly because the school systems are becoming more similar. The range of ability can be discerned from the subjects of commercial education, which vary from elementary typewriting to operational research skills for senior managers.

Even now the educational systems of Western Europe retain substantial differences. Any description of commercial education in such countries would require a separate pattern for the United Kingdom because that country provides a great deal of commercial education at several levels in further education colleges which run parallel to the developing comprehensive school system. In the United Kingdom, both school and the further education colleges can admit pupils aged 16-19, i.e. the age range earlier defined as upper secondary.

Hence, it is necessary to look in a different direction in order to discover a conceptual structure of commercial education which will apply to most (if not all) of the countries of Western Europe.

Such a tool of analysis appears available if we look at commercial education in terms of its output into occupations. These occupations can be broadly described as follows:

1. Routine clerk
2. Senior clerk
3. Executive
4. Higher executive
5. Professional, e.g. accountant or lawyer.

The routine clerk requires the essential skills of reading, writing and simple numerical calculations. For girls, the additional skill of typewriting is often required. Such clerks open post, file documents and copy-type letters. Such a person may enter a first job at the age of 16+.

The senior clerk requires somewhat superior abilities of reading, writing and numeration. He must be able to communicate well, both orally and in writing. He must have skills of aural (i.e. listening) comprehension. Such a person may supervise a small number of routine clerks. He may be promoted from among routine clerks after further education, or he may enter his first job at 18-20. The executive requires limited managerial skills. The typical first occupation is to join a business firm at the age of 18 to 20 as an executive trainee. In time, such a person will become a junior manager.

The higher executive may enter his first occupation at 20 to 25 after completion of a university degree or a Higher Diploma in Business Studies. Inevitably he must be given in-service training, but his qualities of mind and length of educational experience may qualify him to achieve rapid promotion to a senior managerial post.

The professional man in business may specialise in any one of a wide range of activities. Such activities include accountancy, law, costing, taxation, export practice, marketing, or computer management. For each of these specialisms, there is a requirement of specific vocational education and training in addition to the general education

provided by the school or college. In some countries, an association of professional people in the specialism, e.g. accountancy, may themselves examine and award the final qualification. In others, the specialism occupies a major part of a course in higher education which may terminate with the award of a university degree.

Each of these fairly standardised occupational groupings is matched in most Western European countries by a recognisable level of educational provision.

Furthermore, it is also possible to fit into these categories (without too much pressure) similar levels of occupation in public administration (central or local government) which are primarily drawn from the same types of educational provision.

The place of the private secretarial skills

For those who have lived long with commercial education, the categories we have used above may appear to omit the important aspect of the secretarial skills. This is not so, for a little ingenuity also enables us to discover a suitable occupational category which fits the several levels of knowledge of secretarial skills.

The copy typist fits reasonably comfortably into the group designated as " routine clerk ". Her initial job skill is limited, but by further training and study she may become better qualified.

The better qualification often involves the acquisition of the skill of shorthand writing. The copy typist then becomes a shorthand typist and may legitimately claim to have entered the category of senior clerk (or senior typist). As with the senior clerk entering straight from school or college, it is to be expected that such a girl will have been educated full-time to the age of 18-20 and will take with her into her first job usable skills of shorthand and typewriting. Such skills will qualify her for a higher salary than the copy typist.

But girls are not restricted to limited use of the skills of shorthand typewriting. These skills are useful additions to any level of more general education. Hence, we have the girl who leaves school at 18+, goes to university or higher education for one, two or more years, and acquires the secretarial skills in addition. Such women can now rapidly obtain key positions in public or private industry as personal assistants to senior managers. Such posts can be junior managerial in quality and capacity. They fully qualify for the designation of " executive " in the categories we have suggested.

Here it is necessary to stress that no attempt at analysis can perfectly cover every type of occupation or every type of educational provision. We are abstracting broad categories from detailed reality

with a view to obtaining a tool of analysis which will enable us to compare like with like when considering the educational provisions of the different countries of Western Europe. Extensive research appears to show that this is a useful, though not a perfect tool. By asking the question, " into which of these five broad categories of job do the successful pupils go? ", it should be possible to compare every separate course of commercial education in Western Europe with every other course.

The commercial school and comprehensive education

Comprehensive secondary education may be under discussion in all Western European countries, but it is certainly not yet universally adopted. Comprehensive education is widely accepted in Sweden, and is rapidly becoming implemented in the United Kingdom. But the Federal Republic of Germany had done little more than discuss the matter by 1972. In Austria, Spain or Turkey, comprehensive secondary education still appears only as a very distant prospect.

In Sweden, we see that the economic secondary school and the commercial high school are being fully incorporated into the comprehensive secondary education system. This pattern is likely to be followed by Norway. In the United Kingdom, there were once a few secondary technical schools with a commercial bias, but these schools have become, or are becoming incorporated into groupings of schools which form a comprehensive education system. However, in the United Kingdom there is the additional complication of a further education system of colleges which are open to children as soon as they have passed the age of compulsory school attendance, i.e. from the age of 16+. Commercial education is extensively provided both full-time and part-time in colleges of further education for young people aged 16 to 19, i.e. this would be regarded as upper secondary education in most of the countries of continental Western Europe.

It is clear that the separate and specialist commercial school or college will retain its place and importance for some years yet, especially in those countries which have not reorganised secondary education on comprehensive lines. The trend towards comprehensive secondary education, however, appears to be strong and growing in Western Europe. If comprehensive education becomes generally adopted, then the specialist commercial school may expect to become part of a comprehensive school system.

Similar considerations may well influence the place of the further education college within the United Kingdom. The more fully developed becomes the comprehensive school system with its typical (though voluntary) leaving age of 18, the more likely does it seem that the comprehensive schools will retain the pupils up to the age of 18 for

general vocational (including commercial) education. This would leave the further education sector to deal with a wide ability range of young people entering at 18+. This change may take 10-20 years, but if it should take place, it would leave the United Kingdom commercial education structure looking much more similar to its continental European counterparts than it did in 1972. However, it must be said that influential opinion in the United Kingdom does not support this view.

Full-time education and part-time education

This study is mainly concerned with full-time education, but part-time education of several kinds will continue to provide a great deal of education and training in commerce and administration.

The Council of Europe Düsseldorf Conference in 1966 set out four major types of study and training for the skilled worker.

These types were:

1. in the factory;

2. practical in the factory; and theoretical in the school;

3. sandwich courses, i.e. an alternation of learning theory at school and obtaining practical experience in the factory;

4. training and education mainly at school.

It is only necessary to replace the word " factory " with the word " office " in the types set out above to see the relevance of these types of education to our current study.

The first three types are all part-time education linked with different methods of acquiring experience. Practical experience is of great advantage in any type of vocational education. We should expect to see part-time education in commerce and administration expanding in the future.

Yet the expanded education and training to be expected on a part-time basis is unlikely to diminish a much faster growth in the need for full-time education in these subject areas, i.e. we should expect to find growth in both part-time and full-time education in commerce and administration.

Full-time education is subject to the obvious disadvantage that practical work experience is difficult to achieve — even though several countries have tried. Employers do not happily employ young people for short periods — nor do employers joyfully spend money on training school pupils who may go to work elsewhere later on.

Part-time vocational education suffers from its own disabilities. The fairly typical method of allowing employees one day a week for

study may easily result in one day of learning to be followed by six days of forgetting.

These considerations lead to the view that the "sandwich" style course may carry advantages over both full-time and conventional part-time education. Periods of full-time study might be interspersed with short breaks of 4-8 weeks for practical work experience. The knowledge of procedure learned on practical work experiences is, in itself, of limited value only. But the students can acquire a great deal from the social skills learned by testing out the social and economic justification for lines of authority, allocations of function, ethical standards, the building of goodwill and the establishment of a reputation for integrity.

Commercial apprenticeship schemes

Some countries have tried to combine practical experience and theoretical study by the establishment of commercial apprenticeship schemes.

The Federal Republic of Germany has a particularly long history of experience in the development of commercial apprenticeship. Some commercial education seems to have been operated by some of the *Länder* even before technical education was at all well developed.

Current schemes are based upon a written indenture between the firm and the apprentice. It is customary for the apprentice to be required (over the age range 15-18) to undertake study on one day a week in subjects likely to support and reinforce his daily practical experience. Local Chambers of Commerce supervise and examine while all schemes must be approved by the *Land* government. A similarly strong commercial apprenticeship scheme is offered in Denmark, where the apprenticeship may have a duration of 5 years and can lead on to higher qualifications.

In the United Kingdom, a commercial apprenticeship scheme was offered after the second world war by the London Chamber of Commerce. The response by employers and employees was so limited that the scheme must be regarded as a relative failure.

Other countries, such as Sweden, appear not to have attempted to offer commercial apprenticeships. The Netherlands has no tradition of commercial apprenticeship but was expecting a scheme to commence in 1971.

The general tendency in all the countries mentioned, including the Federal Republic of Germany, is for more and more aspects of commercial and administrative education to be provided by full-time study.

Role of the private school

Almost throughout Western Europe, private enterprise schools or colleges can be found offering commercial education. Many such institutions find their major demand from people who wish to learn the saleable skills of shorthand and typewriting. Many other commercial or administrative topics are then added to the curriculum in order to construct a full-time course or to support the student in obtaining a job.

The rising cost of providing full-time education combined with the rapid development of costly office technical equipment is likely to diminish the role of the private college in the future. The raising of the school-leaving age in many countries seems certain to result in the provision of commercial and administrative subjects — including typewriting and shorthand in more schools. Hence the private schools may lose their younger personnel.

There may still be a role for the private schools in providing short full-time courses for married women wishing to return to commerce after some years as a housewife, but even in this aspect it seems likely that the public education system will progressively take over the education currently provided in many private schools or colleges.

Role of the employer's training centre

In every country of Western Europe can be found highly developed training and education centres provided by employers. Such centres are naturally designed to provide specialist skills suited to the needs of the employer.

Nevertheless, it is fair to add that some of the employers have set out both to educate and to train their employees. In the context of this study, we can find for example that a considerable number of employers provide very good general vocational education combined with specific vocational skills related to the productive and commercial processes of the firm. Such employer schools are, however, almost entirely related to the provision of technical education as, for example, is the SAAB training centre in Sweden. The Philips organisation in the Netherlands provides a wide range of educational courses in its own training centres.

In the Federal Republic of Germany, private firms may obtain permission to provide vocational schools for their own apprentices. In such cases, the State may pay up to 90 % of teachers' salaries and a sum of money towards the cost of materials. The vast firm of Krupps once had 1 200 apprentices in their own school. Of these apprentices 50 were training as commercial specialists.

Employees gain a high motivation to learn when the facilities are provided in the firm's time and on the firm's premises. Inevitably, the teaching of skills which are specific to the firm tends to tie the employee too closely to one employer. On the other hand, it is the practical experience of firms providing good training and educational facilities that such firms find themselves paying the cost of training for the entire industry, because their well-trained employees quickly move to competing firms in search of better pay or quicker promotion.

It was the weaknesses of this situation in the United Kingdom which led in 1964 to the passing of the Industrial Training Act. This act provided that all employers (except in very small firms) must pay a levy into a central pool of money out of which the Industrial Training Board for the industry paid firms who were providing efficient training and education. Despite its title, the Industrial Training Act also covers commercial and administrative training. These relatively neglected areas of commercial training are now beginning to receive the attention they deserve from employers.

Correspondence education

The Council of Europe meeting in Oslo (1964) pointed to the tremendous expansion of correspondence schools offering courses in commercial education. The report of the conference stated that this form of education made it possible to overcome the obstacles of having pupils scattered all over the country, a very real problem in many countries. Furthermore, correspondence education had the advantage of bringing the school to the home. Since 1964 correspondence education has expanded in many countries. It is especially helpful to the housebound housewives, long-term invalids, shift workers and those living far from a large town with an educational centre. France has a particularly highly-developed correspondence education covering almost every possible educational topic. In the United Kingdom since 1970, the Open University has provided a top level correspondence educational institution capable of awarding its own university degrees. But, also in the United Kingdom, the government found it advisable to set up in 1968 a Council for the Accreditation of Correspondence Colleges. It appears likely that about 500 000 people study in this way in the United Kingdom.

Some public control of private correspondence schools is becoming necessary in all countries in order to prevent exploitation or the misleading of unknowing students. If some form of public control can be envisaged in each country it seems likely that these schools will continue to provide a valuable service in commercial education.

It would merely duplicate other more detailed studies to set out the structures of commercial education in all the countries of Western Europe.

Valuable information may be obtained from:

1. *School Systems — A Guide*, published by The Council for Cultural Co-operation of the Council of Europe, 1970;

2. *Technical and Vocational Education: Six Area Studies* by D. Porter, published by the Council for Cultural Co-operation of the Council of Europe, 1970;

3. The Ministries of Education in each country, addressing enquiries to the Chief Inspector of Commercial Education.

We set out in the following pages some selected outline structures of business and administrative education. Each of these structures is related to the same occupational entry points. The structures should therefore provide a means of relating the level of courses in different countries to each other.

BUSINESS AND ADMINISTRATIVE EDUCATION

Examples of educational structures related to entry to occupational levels

Netherlands

Occupation (entry point)	*School or university level*	*Further education level (where appropriate)*	
		Part-time route	*Full-time route*
Routine clerk	Secondary school for business economics and business administration (LEAO: first cycle of secondary education); leaving at age 16 after 4-year course, which will start in 1973; at this moment (1972) 3-year course and school examination	Apprenticeship system	Entry into MEAO-school when candidate passed LEAO-school examination in mother tongue and two modern languages
Senior clerk	Secondary school for business economics and business administration (MEAO: second cycle of secondary education); leaving at age 19 after 3-year course and school examination		Entry into HEAO-school when candidate passed MEAO-school examination
Executive	Higher vocational training at colleges of business economics and business administration, including the school for tourist-trade executives (HEAO); leaving age 21-22 after 3-year course and school examination		
Higher executive	University: 6 years' full-time study, leaving age 24+ NOIB *Nederlands Instituut Buitenland at Breukelen/ Opleidings*: 3 years' full-time and the most able students of colleges for HEAO		Draft bill promotes transition of HEAO-students to related university studies

Note

The Post-primary Education Act, which came into operation on 1 August 1968, introduced schools for business economics and business administration at three levels: elementary (*Lager Economisch en administratief onderwijs* — LEAO); intermediate (*Middelbaar Economisch en administratief onderwijs* — MEAO); higher (*Hoger Economisch en administratief onderwijs* — HEAO).

The leaving examinations for all branches of education are school examinations held according to regulations by Royal Decree.

Sweden

Occupation (entry point)	*School or university level*	*Further education level (where appropriate)*	
		Part-time route	*Full-time route*
Routine clerk	Upper secondary school: distribution and clerical line; leaving at age 18+	Part-time studies leading to 2 or 3 years' economics line; no definite number of years; specialised studies in various subjects	
Senior clerk	Upper secondary school: economics line (2 years); leaving at age 18+	Part-time studies leading to 3 years' economics line; no definite number of years; other more specialised studies	Different specialised studies of various length mostly up to one year
Executive	Upper secondary school: economics line (3 years); leaving at age 19+	More specialised part-time studies of various lengths	— ditto —
Higher executive	University or other degree at university level; mostly 3 years' full-time study; leaving at age 22+	Higher degree (doctorate) in business studies	Higher degree (doctorate) in business studies

England and Wales

Occupation (entry point)	*School or university level*	*Further education level (where appropriate)*	
		Part-time route	*Full-time route*
Routine clerk	Secondary school; leaving at age 16+ with some passes in General Certificate of Education at Ordinary Level	Part-time studies for 2 years leading to the Certificate of Office Studies at age 18+	Full-time studies for 1 year leading to the Certificate of Office Studies
Senior clerk	Secondary school; Leaving at age 18+ with one or more passes in General Certificate of Education at Advanced Level	Ordinary National Certificate in Business Studies; part-time studies for 2 years; entry level: a minimum of 4 GCE passes at Ordinary Level	Ordinary National Diploma in Business Studies; full-time studies for 2 years; entry level a minimum of 4 GCE passes at Ordinary Level
Executive	i.e. the same educational provision as for senior clerk, but the most able students secure higher level employment		
Higher executive	University or other degree at university level. At least 3 years' full-time study, leaving at age 21+	Higher National Certificate in Business Studies; part-time studies for 2 years; minimum entry — 2 passes at General Certificate of Education at Advanced Level; completing at age 20+	Higher and National Diploma in Business Studies; full-time studies for 2 years; minimum entry: 1 pass at GCE Advanced Level; completing at age 20+

Note 1: The Ordinary National Certificate may specialise in public administration instead of business studies. Public administration subjects may be included in the Ordinary National Diploma in Business Studies.

Note 2: The Higher National Certificate and Higher National Diploma in Business Studies may be with public administration subjects instead of business administration.

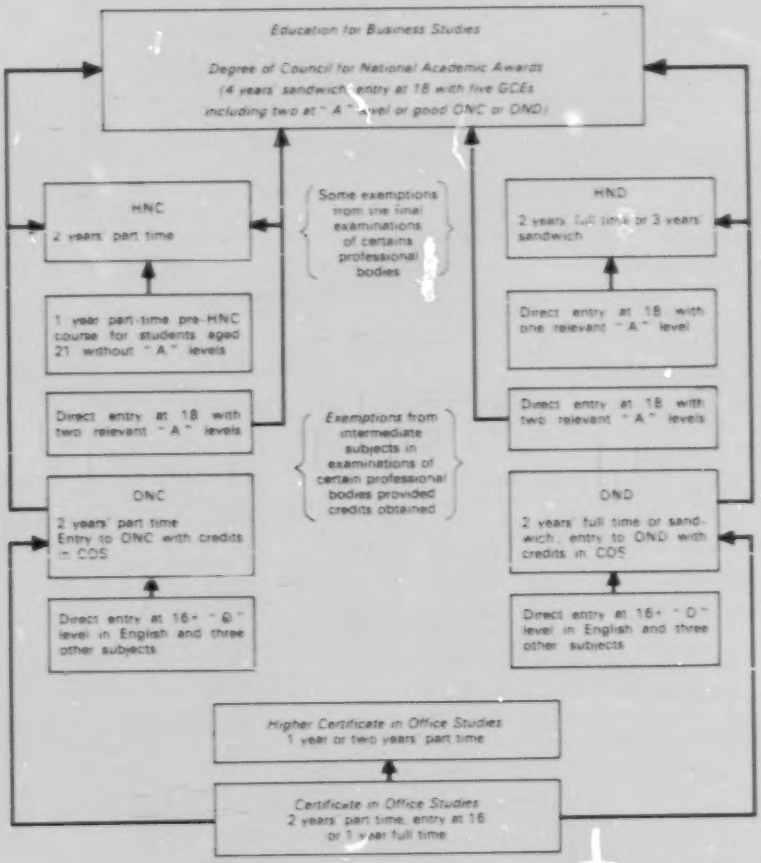
Note 3: Specialist professional qualifications, e.g. accountants, are now normally completed by means of separate professional qualification (combined with practical work experience over several years) for which the entry point is becoming at least two passes at the General Certificate of Education at Advanced Level. Alternatively, study for similar or exempting qualifications may be undertaken at university or polytechnic.

The information set out below has kindly been provided by Mr J.L. Gayler, Staff Inspector of Commercial Education of the Department of Education and Science.

The courses may be grouped under two headings:

A. *Full-time (or sandwich) courses*
- B.A. degree in Business Studies;
- Higher National Diploma (HND) in Business Studies;
- Ordinary National Diploma (OND) in Business Studies;
- Certificate in Office Studies (COS).

B. *Part-time courses*
- Higher National Certificate (HNC) in Business Studies;
- Ordinary National Certificate (ONC) in Business Studies;
- Higher Certificate in Office Studies (HCOS);
- Certificate in Office Studies (COS).

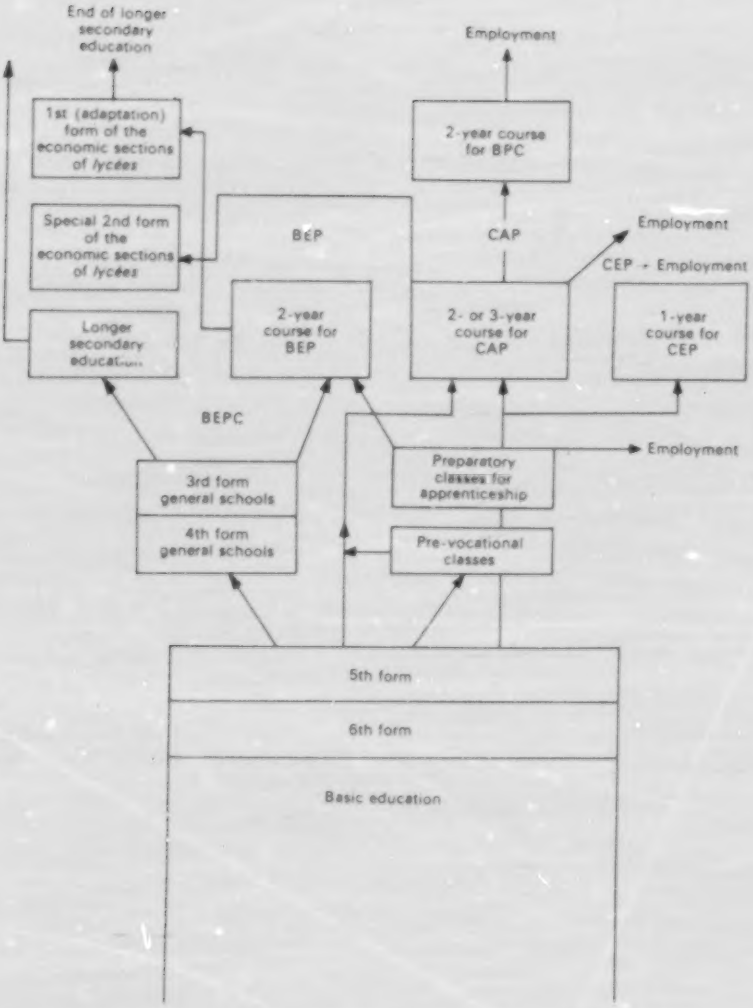

Education for Business Studies
Degree of Council for National Academic Awards
(4 years' sandwich, entry at 18 with five GCEs including two at "A" level or good ONC or OND)
HNC
2 years' part time
1 year part-time pre-HNC course for students aged 21 without "A" levels
Direct entry at 18 with two relevant "A" levels
Some exemptions from the final examinations of certains professional bodies
Exemptions from intermediate subjects in examinations of certain professional bodies provided credits obtained
HND
2 years' full time or 3 years' sandwich
Direct entry at 18 with one relevant "A" level
Direct entry at 18 with two relevant "A" levels
ONC
2 years' part time
Entry to ONC with credits in COS
Direct entry at 16+ "O" level in English and three other subjects
OND
2 years' full time or sandwich; entry to OND with credits in COS
Direct entry at 16+ "O" level in English and three other subjects
Higher Certificate in Office Studies
1 year or two years' part time
Certificate in Office Studies
2 years' part time, entry at 16
or 1 year full time

Federal Republic of Germany

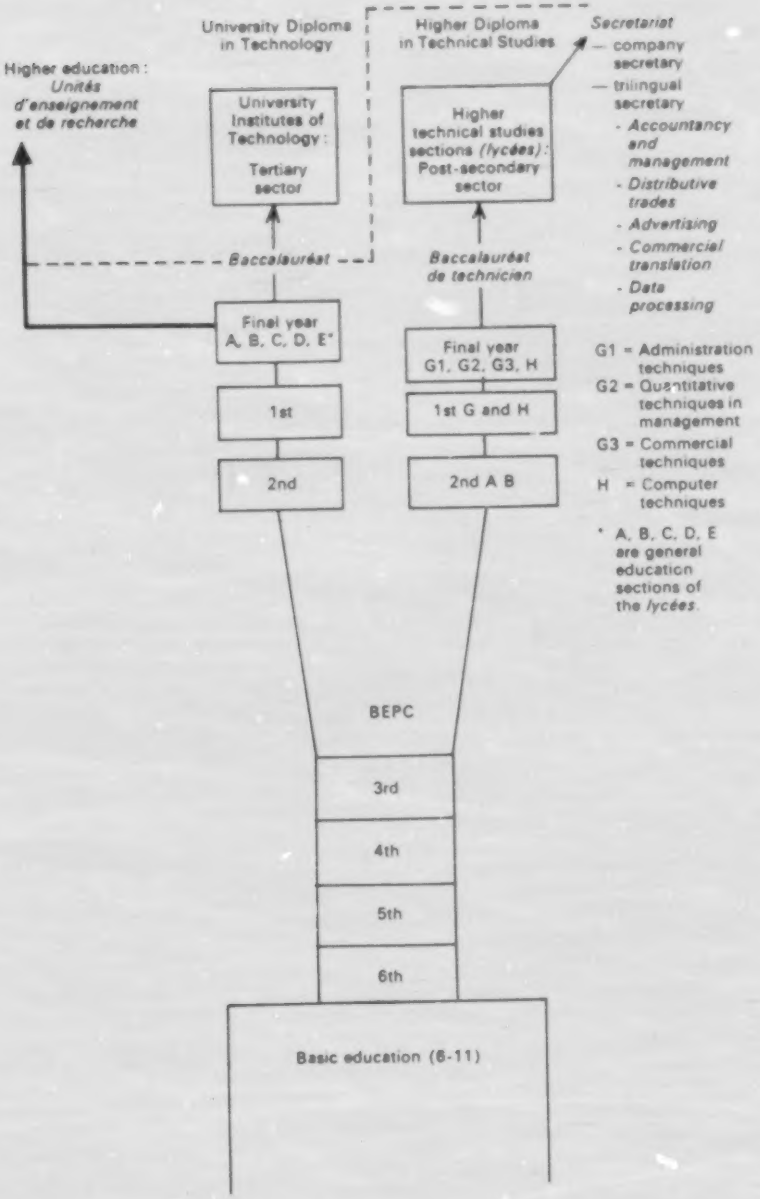
Occupation (entry point)	*School or university level*	*Further education level (where appropriate)*	
		Part-time route	*Full-time route*
Routine clerk	Secondary school; leaving age 15+, usually later	2 years' practical training combined with part-time attendance at vocational shool; professional diploma by examination	2 years' full-time attendance at vocational school, plus 1 additional year of practical training
Senior clerk	Secondary school; usual leaving age 16+, with Secondary School Leaving Certificate or equivalent	3 years' practical training combined with attendance at vocational school for 8 hours a week; professional diploma by examination	2 years' full-time attendance at vocational school, plus two further years of practical training; possible further studies at technical school or economic sciences school
Executive	The same educational provision as for senior clerk, but the most able students secure higher level employment		
Higher executive	Upper secondary school; leaving at 19+ with general or technical *Abitur* (university entrance qualification), or at 16+ with 2 further years at technical school. Up to 2 years' practical experience; 4 years at university for economic sciences degree	Part-time attendance at university or technical college	2 years at technical college for the Economics Diploma. 3 years for State Certificate in Economics, possibly with a specialism

France

Shorter commercial education



Longer economic and commercial education



Note: The French commercial, professional and technical qualifications are, in approximate order of merit:

CEP : *Certificat d'éducation professionnelle* (Certificate of Vocational Education (1 yr.))	(16+)
BEP : *Brevet d'études professionnelles* (Diploma in Vocational Studies (2 yrs.))	(17+)
CAP : *Certificat d'aptitude professionnelle* (Certificate of Professional Competence (2 or 3 yrs.))	(17+ or 18+)
BPC : *Brevet professionnel commercial* (Commercial Diploma (2 yrs.))	(19+ or 20+)
Baccalauréat (de technicien) (technical)	(18+)

Tertiary sector

Brevet de technicien supérieur (Higher Diploma in Technical Studies (2 yrs.))	(20+)
Diplôme universitaire de technologie (2 yrs.)) (University Degree in Technology)	(20+)

Selected examples of commercial education

It is characteristic of the development of any social service of Western European countries that interesting ideas developed in one area have been applied elsewhere. The application has usually been modified to suit local circumstances, but the result has been a steady raising of standards.

Education is especially open to the development of new ideas. Almost every country in the world has gained from the application of ideas developed in one country. Piaget's child development theories, Montessori's methods, kindergarten-style schooling, are but three of many examples.

Education for commerce and administration has, however, had a short history in terms of the rapid expansion of the past two decades. Some examples are, however, of interest, in that they reveal good practice sometimes developed in one or two countries only.

Commercial apprenticeship, for example, operated before the turn of the century in some of the German *Länder*. France also developed a strong apprenticeship system mainly for technical education, but with a line of study for commercial education. In both countries there has developed a scheme of releasing young workers from employment in order to attend commercial school or college for one or two days a week.

In Belgium and Holland, we find a strikingly strong area of private education. This applies not only to the school system, in which the State has given itself the duty of maintaining the same standards in all schools (public or private), but also in the specialist schools or colleges providing commercial education.

Such countries as Belgium and Holland require the use of several foreign languages. This has in itself produced an interesting feature, almost unknown in the United Kingdom, of a shorthand which is designed for use in several languages.

Similarly, the German-speaking countries of the Federal Republic of Germany, Austria and German-speaking Switzerland have agreed nationally to utilise the same international script for teaching shorthand, thus enabling the same script to be used over a wide area.

By contrast, the traditional symbolic shorthand scripts used in the United Kingdom are in the process of being replaced by simpler alphabetic scripts which save a great deal of teaching and learning time, but do not enable the user to attain high speeds.

In several countries vocational education is attaining a new status. The Vocational Training Act which came into operation on 1 September 1969 in the Federal Republic of Germany clearly indicates that general vocational education is as much a public responsibility as general academic education.

In Finland, the new nine-year comprehensive school will have a curriculum which will consist of subjects closely connected with the business life of the community and of practical exercises. Even in a country with a small population like Iceland, joint committees of the Icelandic Chamber of Commerce and of the Co-operative Movement have been preparing new proposals for the development of commercial education. It is expected that there will be new business schools, that full-time study courses will be extended and that a greater variety of subjects will become available within commercial education.

The Netherlands is making its own special contribution to education. From 1 August 1971, in effect, all young people aged 15-18 will begin to be regarded as students whether they are at work or not. From the same date, compulsory part-time education (one day a week) will be introduced for all 15-year-old children. Each year, the period of compulsory part-time education will be extended. The ultimate objective is to provide compulsory full-time education for all children over the age range 6-18, i.e. twelve years of full-time education instead of eight as in 1971.

At the same time, the Netherlands is introducing " participation-education ", i.e. a form of part-time education for all young people between the ages of 15 and 18 while they are " participating " in the production processes and in adult life generally. " Participation " education will involve an integration of the institutes for early school leavers and the apprentice training schools.

The discerning educationist who visits the United Kingdom quickly discovers that there are two parallel systems of educational provision for young people aged 15-18. In addition to the various schools systems (now becoming largely comprehensive), there have been, throughout this century, colleges of further education. These colleges are administered under regulations quite different from the schools. The students are in general treated much more as adults than as children. Up to the second world war, such colleges primarily provided vocational education for young people studying during the evenings or released voluntarily by employers for one day a week.

Over the past two decades, many such colleges have provided for a growing demand for full-time education. This education has become general vocational, and even in some cases general academic, thus acting as an entirely separate form of full-time education from the schools.

It is open to question whether the further education colleges will continue to attract large numbers of young people aged 16-18 in the future. The compulsory school age rises to 16 in 1972 and the growing number of comprehensive schools are likely to retain larger proportions of the age group 16-18.

France's special contribution both to education in general and to commercial education in particular has been the provision of the *Grandes Écoles*. The *Grandes Écoles* are distinct from the university and yet remain an outstandingly important aspect of higher education in France. Entry is highly competitive. Students take special *post-baccalauréat* courses of study offered by the *lycées*. On the commercial side, the best known *Grande École* is the *École des Hautes Études Commerciales* (HEC). The course of study is typically three years of full-time study. Successful students are much sought after for employment by the higher levels of business and administration in France.

Norway can take pride in the possession of two specialist educational institutions which are rarely evident elsewhere in Western Europe. In Bergen there is the Norwegian College of Administration. Its specialist duty is to provide suitable employees for central government, for local government and for public administration in general. In Oslo there is the State School College for Teachers of Business and Commercial Subjects. We shall find in Chapter 7 that a recommendation is made suggesting that every country in Western Europe needs a comparable specialist teacher training college.

We must also look at the highly integrated upper secondary education system which began its formal career in Sweden on 1 July 1971. From that date, the former upper secondary schools *(Gymnasiet)*, the continuation schools and the vocational schools were replaced by one voluntary integrated upper secondary school named the *Gymnasieskola*, i.e. the comprehensive upper secondary school.

In these new schools, looked at from one point of view, there is no longer any " commercial " education for the specialist commercial schools have disappeared. However, it is equally true to say that commercial and administrative education is now available to all children at the upper secondary level.

The new schools provide 22 lines of study in which three major groups correspond to what has traditionally been called commercial education. These are:

(*a*) two-year distribution and clerical line;

(*b*) two-year economics line;

(*c*) three-year economics line.

For the purposes of our more extended definition of commercial and administrative education, several other lines of study may also contain appropriate areas of study, e.g. social line, administrative data processing (computers), consumer line. The subject of economics may be taken by any student within the school.

Other Scandinavian countries are using the Swedish model in their own forward plans for educational development. The accent on full-time study at school up to the age of 18, coupled with a strong availability of general vocational education, will be watched with the closest interest by the educationists of all European countries.

Finally in this section, we must refer to Spain where, in the further training of teachers, provision is made for higher education teachers to leave teaching for a period of one year every seventh year so as to give them the opportunity of attending new courses both in Spain and abroad, or the possibility of joining a business firm in order to keep the teachers in close contact with new techniques in the business world.

CHAPTER 3

AIMS, SKILLS AND APTITUDES

Introduction to the aims of commercial education

If we were to ask a businessman to state the aims of business education, he would almost certainly reply that business education should enable students to read and write well, and to handle numbers confidently and successfully. He might add that he would like his employees to be " intelligent ".

Unfortunately, these vaguely stated aims are not translatable into specific skills and aptitudes which the teacher can inculcate into his pupils. " Intelligence " still awaits a generally acceptable measure, and even its description is a matter of controversy. An ability to handle numbers may be measured by testing, and it is reasonable to assume that standards can be determined which would be acceptable for a given level of employment. Reading and writing well are exceedingly difficult skills to measure objectively. The vocabulary required of a junior clerk is different from that required of a trainee manager. The ability to write a letter to one's mother is not comparable with the writing skills required to summarise the conclusions of a meeting of experts.

It is this lack of precision in the aims of business and administrative education which has enabled many employers unfairly to criticise education for failing to provide the perfect young people they would like to employ.

However, the fault does not lie entirely with the employer. Educationists have themselves often accepted the vague generalisations of employers as sufficient to provide the aims of the school or the college. This situation should not be left to continue, for it is certain that more and more young people will try to enter the clerical and administrative occupations in the future. Unless we provide ourselves with clear and achievable aims, we shall attract more criticism for a failure to achieve aims set by employers.

Bloom's taxonomy

Professor B.S. Bloom of Chicago University has constructed a classification of educational goals in the cognitive domain. These goals can be summarised in the following six words:

1. knowledge,
2. comprehension,
3. application,
4. analysis,
5. synthesis,
6. evaluation.

These qualities can be applied over a range of teaching subjects or they may be applied to each individual subject. Thus, we may consider how far a range of typical business studies subjects is likely to encourage the development of the six-named qualities in each student; or we may consider each individual subject with a view to discovering how the subject may be taught in order to encourage the development of those qualities. Teachers can use the classification to identify aspects of teaching strategy, or to relate particular types of teaching technology to specific skills.

The special value of Bloom's taxonomy to the teaching of business and administrative subjects is that the taxonomy unites the teacher, the learner and the future employer in a commonly acceptable programme.

Employers can readily understand that the qualities desirable or sought by Bloom's taxonomy are equally those required of a capable employee — and this applies to every occupation.

However, it is obvious that each of the qualities classified will not be required equally in every occupation: the six qualities are shown in a rising order of intellectual sophistication. Knowledge and comprehension are required in a junior clerical occupation. Application, and perhaps analysis, become more necessary at the senior clerical and executive levels. When we assess the qualities required of a trainee manager, we shall certainly hope to discover in a potential employee all six of the qualities listed in the taxonomy, i.e. knowledge, comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis and evaluation.

An effort to relate qualities to occupation immediately invites the teacher to assess the appropriate amount of time to devote to each of the six qualities in the teaching of each subject. Let us take an example from an examination set in economics for the 18-year old school leaver. The Associated Examining Board of the United Kingdom

invited teachers to suggest the proportions of Bloom's classification which should be tested at the examination. The group of teachers recommended the following weighting:

Table 1

Economics–General Certificate of Education Advanced Level	
Educational aim	*Examination weighting*
1. Recall, factual knowledge and understanding	30 %
2. Application	40 %
3. Analysis and evaluation	30 %

It will be seen that the teachers have telescoped Bloom's six categories into three, and have eliminated the category of " synthesis ". However, definite weights are attached to the categories agreed by the teachers.

The teachers' advice can be presumed to be a projection of their teaching experience at the level appropriate to the examination, i.e. 18 year-old pupils in the academic stream of a secondary school.

We could expect a different structure for a younger person, say at 16 years, studying the subject of commerce or office practice. In such circumstances we might expect the teachers to recommend some structure like the following:

Table 2

Office practice at age 16 +	
Educational aim	*Examination weighting*
1. Factual knowledge	40 %
2. Comprehension	30 %
3. Application	20 %
4. Analysis	10 %

This imaginary example is not intended to give guidance. It is simply an illustration of a method by which Bloom's taxonomy can be adapted and utilised to add an additional dimension of precision and conscious determination to a teaching strategy.

Any given group of teachers will decide their own weightings of the importance to be attached to each quality within each subject. But as soon as a weighting has been consciously decided, then that weighting can be applied to the time-allocation for teaching the various qualities through each individual subject.

Quantitative analysis of a syllabus

Syllabuses are the normal means of communication between those who set examinations and those who teach the candidates who are expected to take those examinations. Yet syllabuses are often worded vaguely and in broad generalisations. For example, in the subject of office practice, it would be normal to find an item of the syllabus which read " Methods of duplication ". This item could mean two simple methods of spirit duplication, or an entire science of photographic, electro-static, mechanical and electrical methods of reproducing printed or written material. Furthermore, the syllabus may contain thirty or forty items, yet it does not indicate the relative importance of each item. Should " Methods of duplication " take up 10 % of teaching time? Or should it take 5 %? Or 25 %? Each teacher in each different teaching institution is forced by this vagueness of syllabus to decide on the proportion of time to be allocated to teaching the subject. Inevitably, different amounts of time are decided upon by different teachers for different groups of students. Equally inevitably, many of these time - allocations will not correspond to those in the mind of an external examiner.

There is therefore a case for a quantification of the individual areas of each syllabus so that these guide-lines can become the same for teacher, learner and examiner.

We give below an example of the way in which a teachers' advisory committee quantified the relationships between different aspects of an economics syllabus.

The recommended weightings were a consequence of the teachers' experience, but the recommendations were put to practical use, for they also formed the specification for objective test question items which were designed to cover the entire syllabus.

This example serves to illustrate the possibilities of quantifying every teaching syllabus. Teachers with daily practical experience must be involved in any such quantification of the syllabus. There seems

Table 3

Relative importance of economics topics	
Economics topic	*Percentage weight to be applied to each topic*
	%
Preliminary ideas	5
Micro-economics	25
Macro-economics	30
International economics	10
Economic organisation	15
Population /location of industry	5
Current topics/miscellaneous	10
Total	100

little doubt that such a quantified approach could help to raise the standards of business and administrative education.

Listening comprehension and verbal skills

Any person who has ever worked in an office will know how essential it is for the employees to be able to listen and to understand. The telephone is a vital part of communication in any form of administration. The voice is used to give instruction, to buy goods, to sell goods, to direct attention, or to discuss procedures and to consider possible decisions. Spoken communication in fact forms a far larger part of office administration than does any form of written communication.

The Council of Europe Conference on Commercial Education held in Interlaken during 1967 quite clearly saw this vital role of the ear and the voice. The working group stated that it was the duty of the teacher of commerce to pay very careful attention throughout the whole of his work to the development of an ability on the part of his pupils to learn:

1. how to listen carefully so that they could give orally or in writing an accurate report on what they had heard; or so that they could evaluate commands given and take appropriate action consequent upon the command; or so that they could take accurate notes of what had been said to them;

2. how to read accurately and swiftly documents and reports so that they would come to a stage where they could determine how fully any document required to be studied and to evaluate the importance of the varied material presented to them;

3. how to write correctly and precisely;

4. how to speak precisely, clearly and intelligibly within the field of their commercial experience.

It was quite evident to the experts of the Interlaken Conference that neither conventional teaching methods nor conventional examination procedures were well suited to the essential development of the listening and oral communication skills. Fortunately, many teachers in the world of business and administrative education have brought some practical experience to bear on their teaching. This practical experience is improving the quality of listening and oral skills, to the great benefit of the learner, the employer and the general public who are the main beneficiaries of well-conducted business or administrative offices.

Communication skills

The Interlaken Conference of 1967 also laid great stress upon the need for the teaching of all communication skills. The conference stated that the continual increase in the size of the business or administrative unit entailed an increase in external and internal communication — both written and oral. Hence, it was important to give more training in producing reports (containing precise basic facts) and in drafting instructions, notices of meetings, orders, summaries of situations and of facts. It was especially recommended that pupils should be given practice in the verbal analysis and synthesis of the problems raised by every letter in business correspondence. It was anticipated that training in these methods would produce a less archaic and laboured style in subsequent drafting and that the training would enable business administration letter writers to give matter priority over form.

Knowledge and reference sources

Knowledge about business or public administration can never be static. Business must always be dynamic in order to incorporate new technologies, to improve techniques of production as well as of selling, and to provide better and more efficient service to customers. Public administration changes less dramatically, but nevertheless does constantly change as new laws alter one aspect of administration or introduce entirely new areas such as those we have seen in social administration over the past two decades.

This dynamic situation demands that education for business and administration trains its students to learn the sources of information rather than current facts of information. The fact of today is the history of tomorrow. Good administrators both in business and in the public services need to learn the necessity of keeping up to date with current knowledge. Public service administrators cannot possibly serve the public well without a daily reading of a reputable newspaper, regular study of appropriate journals and the capacity to know where to look for new and changing information.

Similarly, any business which stays wholly static must fail — for competitive businesses will always be seeking new methods of pleasing the potential customers.

It must be — if it has not already become — a major aim of business and administrative education to each its students to be capable of seeking and finding current information. Such an attitude of mind cannot be taught in terms of a particular subject. The teacher of all subjects needs to be constantly aware of the necessity to teach about sources of information as part of the essential equipment of every student who is hoping for success in business or administration.

The search for initiative and adaptability

Most forms of education have changed immensely over the past half-century in their approach to the encouragement of independent thinking by pupils. The last quarter of the 19th century saw the child as a receptacle to be filled with useful pieces of knowledge which he would retain for ever and utilise for employment. New educational ideas, combined with dynamic social and economic structures, have entirely changed this attitude. Children are now encouraged as far as possible to maximise individual potential and to bring a questioning, critical mind to all aspects of life.

Business and administrative education needs to be particularly sensitive to the need to develop the questioning and critical faculties of future employees.

The Interlaken Conference stated that the economic and vocational training of young people should aim at developing in them an attitude characterised by two basic qualities:

1. adaptability to practical situations which they will encounter later at work, an adaptability which may be summed up as the ability to find a working method for oneself in [illegible]circumstances;

2. creativity, which is a product of imagination, foresight, initiative and enthusiasm, and by which it is possible to go further than situations already reached and results already achieved.

The desirability of the search for initiative and adaptability is unquestioned. The methods of attaining these desirable qualities are, however, far from easy to state. Most of the development of initiative and adaptability must spring from an attitude of mind in the teachers and from their use of methods suitably designed to develop these qualities. Some aspects of the methodology are discussed later in Chapter 5.

The individual within a team

At first glance, it appears contradictory to stress the need for individual initiative and then follow it immediately with a case for teamwork. The truth is that modern technology has developed only because of a combination of individual initiative and teamwork. Research teams must work together, just as office staffs form a team of specialists all working together to produce the best possible service for the customer.

We have already stressed the growing size of the business and administrative unit. This growth is more than matched by the size of the office staffs which are tending to become a greater proportion of any form of manpower employed in any enterprise — private or public.

As the Interlaken Conference reported, " the need for solidarity within a firm amply justifies the need for individual work within a team ". In order to achieve this aim, the Interlaken Conference recommended that group work should be prepared and co-ordinated. This work should be distributed to various teams. Each team would be responsible for a specific task and would work under the guidance of a responsible team leader. Group work in this form was felt to encourage a sense of responsibility and team spirit. It was not easily applicable to each subject taken individually, but the method could be used to make a synthesis of the various subjects of administration and management.

A valuable analysis of the use of case studies in commercial education was published in the SIEC journal (published by the International Society for Business Education) in April 1971 (No. 77). The article gave the following opinion of case studies in relation to the student (p. 57). It teaches him teamwork, to confront his opinions with those of others, to enrich his experience with that of others, to analyse and discern his attitudes, to be responsive to the feelings and attitudes of others, to listen, and to accept discussion befo redisproving. Case studies help to form the student's judgment, and this is a consequence of a thorough analysis of the problems carried out by the group. The student could not have undertaken such an analysis on his own.

Aims re-stated of the Oslo Conference

The Council of Europe Oslo Conference on Commercial Education was held in 1964, but many of its aims and recommendations are still valid today. The conference pointed out, for example, that elements of commercial education had basic value for general education as well as for vocational, i.e. the Oslo Conference anticipated the distinction drawn here between general academic education and general vocational education.

The conference stated that much new legislation in many countries was economic in nature, and that this required every adult man and woman to think economically. Economics, as the main basic subject of commercial education, was also a necessary part of the cultural education of each citizen.

In addition, it was argued that there was a growing need for professionally trained workers in retailing, wholesaling, transport, private and public administration, banking, insurance and marketing. Nevertheless, secondary education should both prepare students for entry into occupations using these specialisms and, at the same time, as far as possible enable the students to enter full-time higher education.

This twofold aim, i.e. either to enter employment or to go forward to higher education, looked much more difficult of attainment in 1964 than it does in 1972. In 1964, examination systems did not easily permit the vocational specialist to go on to higher education — especially at university. The trend of the 1970s is however to re-structure the examination systems so that an open door is available into some form of higher education for the vocational and commercial streams of education as well as for the academic streams.

Education as citizens

The apparent division of education into general academic and general vocational has often led educationists to assume that, whereas general academic education tends to produce " good ", " well-educated " citizens, general vocational education neglects citizenship training.

In fact, the Council of Europe meetings of experts on all aspects of vocational education have always stressed the necessity of complementing vocational education with citizenship education. It is, of course, easily arguable in the commercial and administrative areas of education that the subjects themselves are as good a training in citizenship as many " general " subjects in schools. The study of law and economics are both justifiable as citizenship training for every person.

But we need not go so far as this in our defence of commercial and administrative education. The Munich Conference in 1970 firmly asserted that:

"We must not lose sight of the fact that the object is not to inculcate in our students a given technique, but:

1. to show them how to work, to teach them to learn; and

2. to develop their initiative, their creative powers, their sense of responsibility."

Education, they argued, in general aimed at developing the human personality through intellectual, cultural, technical, physical and moral training. Though commercial education, in the main aimed at preparing for an occupation, these prime objectives of education could not be overlooked.

While these remain the stated aims of leaders of educational thought in commercial and administrative education, we need have no fear that citizenship education will be neglected in these vocational areas.

Education as human beings

"Citizenship", however, does not cover all aspects of human personality. There are areas of human activity, e.g. religion, love of beauty, personal relations, physical activity, which still need attention all the way through life if we are to maximise the richness of human potentiality. The French phrase *formation humaine* well describes the style of education which develops people as human beings.

Here again we may refer to the attitude expressed by educationists responsible for vocational education in many countries. The Baden/Vienna Conference of 1967 set out the following aims of continued vocational education:

1. to arouse the curiosity and the interest of the pupils in such a way as to lead them to continue their training as men and citizens;

2. to consolidate, supplement and extend general education;

3. to develop personality and a sense of responsibility;

4. to develop aptitudes for self-education and the use of leisure.

This broad approach to the educational aspects of vocational studies evidently adds to the cultural stature of each student and to his quality as a cultivated human being.

New skills for a computer world

An entirely new and revolutionary area of business and administrative education has arisen within the past decade. It has come with the arrival of the computer to service business and administration data processing.

The computer requires new skills. It demands a higher quality of teamwork. It fails unless employees provide it with input of absolute accuracy.

This chapter began with a plea for a new precision and quantification of the aims of business and administration. The computer and its processing reinforces the necessity for this addition of precision to our specialist area of education.

There are four major areas of employment in relation to electronic data processing for business and administrative purposes. These are:

1. operators (preparation of input);
2. programmers (routing of input by instruction to the computer);
3. systems analysts (relating of business or administrative systems to the processes of the computer);
4. computer managers (management of computer staff and responsibility for computer output).

All these areas of employment are replacing different types of office employee. Many thousands of former routine clerks are being replaced by computer processing. The future output of the educational system must expect to provide computer operators instead of routine clerks, computer programmers instead of senior clerks or executives, and systems analysts or computer managers in place of some management trainees. Even the highly qualified specialists such as accountants, cost accountants, bankers, insurance officers and statisticians will have to incorporate a sufficient knowledge of computer processing in order successfully to apply their specialisms.

Business and administrative education must meet the challenge of the computer age by introducing higher standards of precision into all clerical processes. This means that numeracy is at least as important as literacy, and that literacy itself must raise its standards of precision in communication. If this renaissance in the aims of business and administrative education is supported by its teachers, then business and administrative education cannot fail to become the brand leader of all educational processes.

CHAPTER 4

CURRICULUM DESIGN

Any study of the aims of education seems to lead to the conclusion that different sectors of the population, e.g. employers and teachers as well as different educationists, may have aims for education which appear contradictory.

It is obvious that the employer wishes his new employee to possess skills immediately usable in the office or the workshop. It is equally obvious that the educationists' aim is to develop a wide range of potential capacities in each student.

Similarly, we have stated a case for the encouragement of individual initiative, yet found a necessity to train the individual to work within a team.

Yet again, we have stressed the need for a growing precision of communication and management of numbers, while at the same time stressing the need for a broad general education in order to encourage imagination.

Is it possible to reconcile these apparently opposite aims? Is it also possible to link with all our previous aims that of gently moving towards a harmonisation of the systems of commercial and administrative education of Western European countries? The logic of historical, economic and social development must lead us to provide, through education, the infrastructure which can enable the citizens of the various countries of Western Europe also to become citizens of Western Europe.

In real terms, the only approach which can have a practical effect is to enable curriculum building in each country to have common reference points so that each individual educational institution may build a curriculum consciously related to a general scheme.

This proposition in no way implies central control or central direction. It simply means that individual decisions are taken in the light of generally available knowledge.

A school or college curriculum is a collection of subjects. The collection may be haphazardly made. It may be the repetition of a pattern set many years ago. It may be a consequence of the availability of specialist teaching skills. It may be, and often is, a carefully determined pattern which is a function of the educational philosophy of

the individual head teacher or college principal. In all these cases, the result may be, and often is, that groups of pupils or students in different schools or colleges are presented with very different programmes of subjects.

The purpose of this chapter is to try to discover if there is a common core of subjects which could become a standard reference list for those educationists responsible for making curricula for business and administrative education.

The Munich Conference (1970) approach to curriculum design

The 1970 Munich Conference of the Council of Europe set out an approach to curriculum design which was based on an output to employment of three levels of employee.

These three levels were:

1. junior clerks,
2. medium grade business executives,
3. higher grade executives.

The members of the conference prepared a table of commercial subjects which were felt to be applicable in all the countries represented.

We set out the table below.

Table 4

Commercial education			
Groups of subject	*Level 1 Junior clerks*	*Level 2 Medium grade business executives*	*Level 3 Higher grade executives*
General commercial course	The entire course	—	—
Accountancy, management	Introduction	Specialisation	Specialisation
Administration, secretaryship	Introduction	Specialisation	Specialisation
Distribution	Introduction	Specialisation	Specialisation

This table can be interpreted to mean that junior clerks were expected to take a general commercial course and to have an introduction to accountancy, management, administration, secretaryship and distribution.

The medium grade executive is presumed to follow a general commercial course with selected specialisms. The higher grade executive would pursue the specialisms to a higher level.

At Level 1 (junior clerks), the members suggested that there should be a common technical curriculum without specialisation. All commercial subjects should be integrated into a course fitting pupils for non-specialised posts, and aiming essentially at the meticulous and accurate performance of office tasks.

At Level 2 (medium grade business executives), the specialist subjects listed in Table 4 would normally be taken by all commercial course students (who would include those undertaking consumer education). Specialisation would also be necessary in one or other of the basic subject groups according to the choices offered. Every choice offered would be designed to meet business needs. Consequently, within each group of subjects, the teaching would need to be co-ordinated and integrated. This aim might be accomplished if the subjects in each group could be taught by the same teacher.

At Level 3 (higher grade executive), it would be necessary to provide specialised techniques for each subject studied. This implies a necessity for a wider range of choices.

An educational pattern of subjects

So far it seems clear that there must be a properly designed pattern of subjects, and that the subjects themselves should differ in accordance with the anticipated level of employment of the pupil or student.

We have set out, in Chapter 2, a pattern of description of commercial and administrative education by function of expected employment. This pattern was as follows:

1. Routine clerk,
2. Senior clerk,
3. Executive,
4. Higher executive,
5. Professional (i.e. specialists such as accountants).

This pattern differs very little from that recommended by the Munich study group. The pattern here proposed simply divides the clerical function into two grades (routine and senior) and adds the classification of professional specialist.

This extended range of occupational entry points seems to be justified both by a study of current business levels of recruitment and by the addition of the public administration sector to our range of employees. Thus, it is not uncommon for central and local government offices to recruit two levels of clerk. Each level enters employment from a different stage of the education system.

The term " professional specialist " is difficult to translate over the European scene. This is because the word " professional " in some countries means a relatively low-level specialist, whereas in other countries it means a high-level specialist with education to the equivalent of a university degree. In this study we are using the term " professional specialist " to mean the high-level specialist with the equivalent of a university education.

It is generally true that the higher executive employee requires some form of full-time or part-time higher education after school. Such a person might take a 2-year full-time course after the age of 18 in, for example, the Higher Commercial School of Amsterdam, or in various forms of non-university higher commercial education in several countries of Western Europe. A typical entry age to employment would then be 20 or 21.

If we leave aside the occupational grades coming from higher education institutions for the moment, we are left with three grades of occupation to be provided normally by the school system in Western Europe (but, exceptionally, by school or college of further education in the United Kingdom). These three categories are:

1. Routine clerk,
2. Senior clerk,
3. Executive.

The " mix " of subjects should clearly be somewhat different for each of these different levels of employee.

At the level of routine clerk, the normal entry age to employment may be 15 or 16. This pupil must, of necessity, have a broad general education which still incorporates commercial subjects, but which is nevertheless completing lower secondary education. Such a pupil would expect to study:

— the mother tongue,
— a modern foreign language,
— a numerical subject,
— history (possibly economic),
— geography (possibly economic),
— commerce, and possibly,
— office practice.

To this " mix ", different countries would add religion, and physical education.

For the levels of senior clerk and executive, the earliest age of entering employment might well be 18. For both groups (following the Munich Conference recommendations), we should expect to find a diminution of the " general " subjects such as history and geography and a beginning to specialist studies of e.g. book-keeping, distribution, office administration, general law and economics. Nevertheless, we should also still expect to find:

— the mother tongue,

— a modern foreign language,

— a numerical subject.

The " mix " of subjects at these two levels can be considered in a different way. The students are to become specialists of one kind or another in commerce or administration. Hence, we may assume that they must study subjects specially related to commerce or administration. The programme may now be considered to have three major divisions. These could be:

1. special subjects,
2. complementary subjects,
3. contrasting subjects.

In this form of analysis, we are attempting to build together subjects into a curriculum structure which does deliberately aim to reconcile those apparently irreconcilable or contradictory aims with which we began this chapter.

Special subjects as considered here aim to train the lower-level specialist (i.e. not the university-level specialist). Let us take as an example the senior clerk who will specialise in accountancy. His special subject will be accountancy. In order to support his use of accountancy in business, he would study complementary subjects such as economics, company organisation and commercial law. In addition, however, we must aim to utilise different potentialities within the individual from those directly (specialism) or indirectly (complementary subjects) related to his future occupation. Hence, we could then devise a range of contrasting subjects which were consciously designed to open areas of knowledge or interest different from the occupational studies. Thus we might require our future accountancy senior clerk to study (say) two subjects from a range which might include general science, literature, philosophy, sociology, religion or art.

The classification of curriculum subjects into the three broad categories (special subjects, complementary subjects and contrasting subjects) may especially commend itself to those countries which

are making an effort to combine general academic studies and general vocational studies — and even some specific vocational studies — into one comprehensive secondary educational institution. The classification may ease the burden of adding general vocational studies to a former general academic programme, and general academic studies to a former general vocational programme. Unless some methodology of curriculum structure is found which can limit the number of subjects studied, then the academic pupils will suffer because they are required to study vocational subjects in addition to a normal academic programme; and the vocational students will suffer because they are required to study academic subjects in an academic way which may be unsuited to their more practical method of thinking and learning. No education is improved by merely adding subjects to a programme already overloaded and growing annually with the advance of knowledge.

With the classification, it may be possible to prepare curriculum programmes for the comprehensive-style school in which the academically inclined pupils choose one or two subjects for study in depth, two or three as complementary or supporting subjects and one or two as " contrasting " subjects. For academic pupils the " contrasting " subjects could be technical or commercial, thus linking together different styles of ability and enabling schools to teach subjects to a wide range of pupils.

A micro- or a macro- approach to teaching

The ability range of pupils in comprehensive upper secondary school is bound to be wide. Hence different methods of teaching may be necessary in order to interest the different pupils. To attain this end, it will almost certainly be necessary to teach some subjects with a practical approach to less advanced pupils, and with a more theoretical approach to more advanced pupils. In economics, for example, it is already common for the earlier stages of study to begin with a micro-economic approach, i.e. through factual material and working from the economic organisation of the firm. For the later stages of economics or for the more advanced pupils, the teaching could have a strongly macro-economic approach, i.e. it could begin with theoretical models and national monetary policy, subsquently applying this knowledge to analyse current general economic problems.

Business and administrative subjects associated with economics

It is possible, with the help of the Council of Europe/Oxford University Study on Economics Education to show the business and administrative subjects most commonly associated with the study of economics.

We therefore set out below Table 5.

Table 5

Related subjects included in the economics course										
Subject	*Belgium*	*Cyprus*	*France*	*Federal Republic of Germany*	*Italy*	*Luxembourg*	*Malta*	*Norway*	*Sweden*	*Switzerland*
Accounting	×	×		×	×	×	×	×	×	×
Book-keeping					×					
Commercial studies	×	×		×	×		×	×	×	×
Commercial correspondence		×								
Commercial mathematics		×				×				
Law		×		×	×	×		×	×	×
Political studies				×	×				(×)	×
Skills — Shorthand	(×)	(×)		×					(×)	
Typing	(×)	×		×				×	(×)	×

Brackets round × indicate that the subjects are optional

Table 5 shows how frequently accounting, commercial studies and law are associated with economics-type courses. The office skills of shorthand and typewriting receive very limited mention and are most commonly studied as options.

The United Kingdom is not included in Table 5 because its business and administrative education, even over the age range 16-19, is more commonly provided in further education colleges than in schools. About 200 further education colleges now offer an Ordinary National Diploma in Business Studies. This course is customarily entered at the age of 16 or 17. The entrant must possess passes in four subjects at the Ordinary Level of the General Certificate of Education. The course lasts for two years of full-time study. It is necessary for students to study five subjects. The curriculum in this course would typically include mother tongue, accountancy, law, economics and an optional subject such as a modern foreign language, economic history, economic geography, statistics or office organisation.

It is interesting to compare the United Kingdom Ordinary National Diploma course with that proposed for the commercial line subject of the technical/vocational gymnasium in Denmark. The curriculum in Denmark will include:

— the mother tongue,
— arithmetic or mathematics,
— one or more foreign languages,
— civics,
— business studies,
— industrial psychology,
— business data processing.

These subjects are expected to cover about half the course for the technical/commercial gymnasium. The remaining time is expected to be spent on subjects especially related to future employment, e.g. accountancy, transport, banking or insurance.

In principle, there are considerable similarities between the Danish programme and that offered in the United Kingdom. The major educational difference between the United Kingdom and other countries appears however quite clearly in this comparison. The difference lies in the fact that the Danish curriculum plans for the study of more subjects than does a typical United Kingdom curriculum.

Here, it may be appropriate to refer to the Interlaken report, which made a plea for the cautious pruning of commercial and administrative course programmes. The Interlaken report suggested the " abolition of old-fashioned and useless subjects " and mentioned business arithmetic as a subject of which the usefulness should be reconsidered.

Need for a Council of Europe study group on curriculum structuring

The examples given, and the views of the business education groups of Interlaken lead us to consider whether a curriculum and syllabus conference should be planned by the Council of Europe. As far back as the Oslo Conference of 1964, a recommendation was made for a curriculum conference for commercial education. So far this conference has not proved feasible but a symposium is planned for 1974 on the introduction of economics into the secondary school curriculum.

These partial approaches do not provide the necessary guidance for the many educationists who are currently re-designing curricula to meet the new shape of secondary school education.

Here we make a plea in the interests of the pupils for a deliberate limitation of the number of subjects to be studied.

New topics and the timetable

The worst possible approach to timetable structuring is merely to add new subjects to an existing heavy programme. Yet new subjects continue to affect business and administrative education. Data processing by computer demands not only knowledge of computer processes, but also a study of binary arithmetic, of symbolic styles of computer programming and at least an understanding of what a computer language means.

Office organisation has changed drastically during the past decade. Accountancy, business statistics and methods of recording personnel information have all been re-structured by linkages with computer data processing. Marketing and market research are new areas of business study. It may be painful to reconsider every curriculum and every timetable in the light of changed needs and changed information, but this process is essential to avoid overloading the timetable.

The case for limiting the number of subjects studied is reinforced by the developing necessity both to provide time for students to work in groups in order to strengthen methods of teamwork, and to allow time for individual students to work on their own in order to develop personal initiative and imagination.

Place of a numerical subject

Before reaching any conclusions about the structure of a curriculum it is important to consider the case for the inclusion of particular areas of study. A ready and confident manipulation of numbers is certainly one area for which the case seems undeniable. We have already stressed the need for precision in the use of words and numbers. The computer simply underlines this need.

However, it is very important in business and administrative education to stress that a ready and confident manipulation of numbers does not require a study of mathematics. For the range of employees we have mentioned, i.e. the routine clerk, the senior clerk, the executive and the higher executive, there is no need to study academic mathematics in order to utilise all the resources of office technology, including computers. The manipulation of numbers in business and administration has changed so drastically over the past decade that we need the teachers, the businessmen and the public administrators to sit down together to produce a syllabus of the number manipulation which is actually required in these areas of employment.

Number manipulation is certainly required in the occupations we are considering, but it is neither the number manipulation of academic mathematics, nor the arid and time-consuming number practice of twenty-year old arithmetic syllabuses.

Many young people — perhaps all young people in future — will have to learn binary arithmetic and the use of calculating machines before entering employment. With this knowledge, they will certainly take saleable skills with them into their first office job.

The role of modern foreign languages

The growth of international trade, the increasing specialisation of national production, the expansion of international agencies and the explosion of foreign travel all serve to state the case for a study of modern foreign languages to be included in every form of education.

Yet the question must then be asked, which foreign languages? English? French? Spanish? German? Russian? Chinese? There is no simple answer, and yet most countries have a policy which commends a particular foreign language as the first choice to be studied in schools. In the United Kingdom, the first choice is French. In many other countries of Western Europe, the first choice is English.

Some countries have special problems of dual (e.g. Belgium) or even triple (e.g. Switzerland) languages within one geographical nation. In other countries, the national language itself (e.g. Holland or Finland) is so relatively unusual in international commerce that two or more foreign languages must be studied in the schools.

Educationally there seems to be a strong case for one modern foreign language to be studied in all countries. Young minds are thus opened to completely new and often contrasting ideas of language, of customs, of culture and of political or economic organisation. Such a subject could well be among those " contrastive " subjects we have suggested as a necessary component in any vocationally orientated educational course.

Business economics as a composite subject

Curriculum structure in business and administrative education becomes complicated by the fact that some countries, e.g. Sweden, use the term business economics. In Sweden, this term has little relationship with pure economics as studied in the United Kingdom or in France. Business economics in Sweden is a composite subject which includes elements of accounting, of law and of business studies. The subject has strong links with the administration of the business

firm and implies areas of business decision taking and of managerial functions. It is possible, with such an approach, to prepare realistic study programmes which themselves may be examined in case-study form by placing the candidate in the position of a businessman required to decide on a programme of action after being given a structured business situation.

A similar interesting experiment, though on a smaller scale, is taking place in the United Kingdom. A 5-year pilot project began in 1967 to offer a course in business studies at the Advanced Level of the General Certificate of Education, i.e. a 2-year course completed at the age of 18+. The syllabus is intended to provide the background knowledge required for a rational approach to business decisions. The syllabus thus includes:

(i) the significance of finance and accounting,

(ii) the interpretation of quantitive data,

(iii) the study of human behaviour, and

(iv) the understanding of economic environments affecting business.

About forty schools or colleges offered the course during 1972.

The development of these programmes will be studied with great interest by educationists. If successful, the methods and syllabuses could be adopted or adapted in other countries. From the curriculum point of view, however, the subject would be expected to take up the time allocated elsewhere to perhaps three subjects, e.g. accountancy, law and economics.

Is there a common core of subjects?

Until a full curriculum study can be undertaken by the member States of the Council of Europe, we cannot expect to achieve general agreement on a core of subjects which can be regarded as a reference list for all courses in business and administrative education.

In order to stimulate discussion, however, it may be helpful to make some suggestions.

From the information available to this study, it would appear reasonable to propose the following as a common core of subjects for business and administrative educational courses at the upper secondary level:

Subject	*Notes*
1. The mother tongue	For communication; and with a strong emphasis on oral application and listening comprehension.

2. Commerce/ economics	Commerce at the earlier stages of study, and economics at more advanced stages.
3. Number manipulation	This subject ideally requires a new syllabus consciously directed towards practical use in business and administration. Until a new syllabus is devised, the subject should be thought of in terms of arithmetic rather than mathematics. In some courses, the number manipulation subject could be book-keeping (early stages of study) or accountancy (later stages of study).
4. A modern foreign language	The language chosen would be decided by each country in relation to its commercial and cultural situation.

In addition to these four common-core subjects, it would seem educationally appropriate to add (ideally) not more than two subjects of special study. Thus, a potential secretary would add the subjects of shorthand and typewriting; a potential senior banking clerk might add monetary theory and practice of banking; a business executive might add business organisation and industrial sociology; while a routine clerk in the civil service might add office organisation and public administration.

Congruence in business and administrative education

Curricula for any level of education cannot be formed in a vacuum. Each level of education must be congruent with each previous level, and must similarly fit comfortably on to the next stage.

A curriculum planned for business and administrative education at upper secondary level must therefore be based on syllabuses as well as groups of subjects which follow reasonably naturally from lower secondary education.

Similarly, the programme at upper secondary level must not only offer a terminal course for those entering employment, it must also provide a platform for entry into higher education. At present, many upper secondary courses are severely restricted in nature by the academic demands of university entrance qualifications. In the future, we may expect to see university entrance qualifications adjusted to fit with the newly developing general vocational upper secondary courses. Alternatively, new forms of higher education may be introduced which are properly designed to admit students of business and administrative education — or of any form of vocationally orientated education.

Either of these changes (both of which appear to have strong social support) will enable the future builder of a curriculum for business and administrative education to design his programmes and formulate his standards less inhibited by the academic limitations of university education still surprisingly unaware that standards of living depend upon successful business and efficient administration.

CHAPTER 5

METHODS OF TEACHING

Business and administrative education demands very special types of teaching. Not only is it necessary to enable the pupils to learn factual and technical information, it is also necessary to combine vocational knowledge with the maximum development of individual personality.

This dual aim implies that a wide range of teaching methods must be employed, both to stimulate interest in learning and to maximise creative activity. The range of possible occupations in business and administration is extremely wide. Career opportunities are open to high positions demanding sophisticated skills of management, wide-ranging knowledge and the application of balanced judgment to new and conflicting issues.

Teaching to learn

Teaching method might well begin with a conscious aim to enable pupils and students to teach themselves. This aim often requires deliberate rethinking by the teacher of his role in relation to the learner. No longer can we afford to waste the teacher's wide-ranging skills on the direct oral transfer of information. The teacher is rapidly becoming the manager of the pupil's learning time. Every teacher knows that different pupils learn in different ways; have different home backgrounds; utilise different learning resources with different degrees of success. This means that many different learning resources must be available to each group of learners. The teacher's highly skilled professional function then lies in the application of the right learning resources at the right time to each individual pupil.

Thus, each pupil needs to be taught how to use the index of a book; how to apply a prepared tape to a tape recorder; how to work out exercises to reach an answer which is already available; how to make practical models; how to think up theoretical models to simplify understanding.

New approaches to timetabling

These skills are not new to the teacher, but they are new to the pupil. The teaching of such skills demands a new approach to the timetable. If pupils are to learn on their own, they must have sufficient

time for self-learning, free from conventional teaching or learning. At upper secondary level, we should perhaps timetable at least a third of a normal school or college week for self-learning and self-teaching time.

Ten hours or so a week reserved for self-teaching does not mean relaxation time for the lazy. The teacher's skill in guidance, encouragement and assistance can make self-teaching time far more demanding than conventional classroom teaching. Pupils can become more highly motivated, and can thus learn more effectively if they are personally involved in, or even personally excited by, the learning process.

It will be recalled that in Chapter 3 we discussed the necessity to utilise teaching method for the development of personal initiative and adaptability. Self-teaching schemes, under professional teacher guidance, can directly help to develop the pupil's ability to seek answers for himself and to adapt to new and different circumstances. A wise teacher will stand back, saying nothing to the successful self-teacher; but the teacher is equally wise who stands ready to help; available for information; watchfully re-directing; and always stimulating the excitement of self-discovery.

Teaching to teach each other

Self-teaching time can also be used to stimulate self-help between pupils. Small groups may be set to work on the same project. Two or three pupils may be expected to answer different aspects of the same business problem. It will be found that some individuals will find partial answers to the problems of their colleagues, will seek them out, and will transfer the information.

Teachers will be well aware that these methods are relatively unusual at upper secondary level. They are even more rare at lower secondary level. Why is it that these methods are so successfully employed both at the infant or junior school level, and, very often, in higher (tertiary) education?

It is to be feared that much of the spontaneity and self-development of the kindergartens and the university are lost to secondary education because of its preoccupation with conventional examination systems. We shall suggest some changes in the examination methods in Chapter 6.

Business games and administrative games

Before leaving the topic of self-teaching, however, it is important to stress the advantages of employing simulated situations as a method of teaching. The business game has a long history, at the

Harvard School of Business in the United States of America. Yet, despite the preoccupation of the young with games, we have scarcely begun to utilise this method of simulating business situations in order to teach.

Business games can be prepared by teachers with business experience for any age of pupil. Pupils at the upper secondary level can be involved in self-learning, and in teaching each other in quite a new way by skilled use of business game situations. Teachers of business studies can use the material to create a synthesis of accountancy, commerce, economics, law and communication studies. Teams of pupils may be set to compete against each other to produce the best financial solution of a prepared business problem. By utilising this stimulus we find that we are teaching teamwork by practice, utilising individual skills for a group aim, and teaching to teach each other.

Oddly enough, no one seems yet to have prepared public administration games. Yet similar situations recur in every local government office, in every civil service department and in every public corporation. Public administration can be taught through administration games. Administration games are simulated situations with alternative solutions structured in just the same way as are business games. The aims of public administration are different from business, but these aims are open to description and analysis. Public administration has economic, accounting, legal and social consequences. In many cases a decision is finally taken by a personal or group opinion about the priorities of one service against another, or about one use of economic resources against another.

We must hope one day to see a centre for European public administration which will act as a lending library for the distribution of public administration games prepared by the teachers of public administration.

Outline of Interlaken conclusions

Now that we have considered some possibilities for a new approach to business and administrative education, it will be helpful to see how representatives of Western European countries regard modern methods of teaching. The chart set out below was prepared by educational representatives at the Council of Europe Course on Commercial Education held at Interlaken in 1967.

The group of educationists who prepared the table tried to illustrate the relative effectiveness of the methods of study listed, in developing the qualities on which, in their opinion, successful activity in business life depends.

Table 6

Relative importance of different teaching methods for the development of qualities utilised in business									
Teaching method	*Analysis*	*Imagination*	*Foresight*	*Ability to distinguish*	*Methodological way of working*	*Initiative*	*Tolerance*	*Decision taking*	*Encouraging independent thought*
Case study	xxx	xxx		xxx	x	xx		xx	xxx
Group work		xx		xx	xx		xxx		xx
Seminar Exposition by pupils	xx	xx	xx	xxx	xx	xx	xx		xx
Lecture	xx			xx	xx		xx		
Tutorial	xx			xx	xxx	xx	xx		xxx
Role playing Business play	xxx	xxx	xxx	xxx	xxx	xx	xx	xx	xxx
Projects	xx	xxx	xx	xx	xx	xx			xx
Practical experience			xx	xxx	xxx		xx		
Individual study	xx	x		xx	xxx	xx		xx	xx

The order of relative importance is shown by the following key:

Three ×'s, i.e. ××× = highly efficient

Two ×'s, i.e. ×× = efficient

One ×, i.e. × = possibly efficient

Teachers will notice the emphasis placed by the experts at Interlaken on case studies, on discussion (seminar exposition) by pupils, on role playing and on business play. Relatively speaking, the formal lecture (though still of some importance) occupies a very limited place.

The views already expressed in this chapter are nothing more than an extrapolation of ideas already thoroughly discussed and clearly expressed by educational experts in 1967.

However, we must not be misled into assuming that the views of educational experts are rapidly transferred to the school or college. In education, it may take a generation for new thinking to affect school education. In business and administrative education, we cannot afford such a lengthy time-gap. Teachers of business and administration are teaching young people who will in many cases leave school to take up employment in offices using techniques not even invented when those same children were born. Hence, new methodology must be used to transfer new information, just as that same methodology must help to create self-teaching minds ready to change to new technologies several times during a working lifetime.

That is why this study is primarily intended for teachers. Only teachers can translate the theories of educationists into the practical reality of daily life in the classroom.

Teaching skills were seen by the experts of the Interlaken meeting as the means by which business and administrative education could best advance.

The conference concluded that the teacher — " on whom everything depends " (report, page 20) — must therefore realise that the final aim is not the communication of knowledge; communication of knowledge itself had to be effected by the maximum use of methods that called for the pupils' active participation. In order to underline this view, the conference set out some recommended principles for all teachers (Interlaken report, pp. 20-21). These principles included:

1. Dictated lessons must be absolutely prohibited.

2. Exposition by the teacher must be confined to an introduction intended to arouse curiosity, to introduce the elements of the problem and to guide the research effort demanded of the pupil.

3. Socratic discussion for a good teacher is a natural way to communicate knowledge; as much use as possible should therefore be made of it.

4. The case method is recommended at higher levels of education for students with a sound basic training and practical experience. Its stimulating power, the way in which it forces pupils to use knowledge derived from various subjects and to take decisions when faced with practical situations make it an excellent training instrument. At secondary level, this method must be used cautiously. If introduced progressively with pupils who have already sufficient knowledge, it can help to give a feeling for the interdependance of the problems studied and to lead gradually to some independance of thought. If pupils have sufficiently mature minds, they will be induced by the case method to acquire or extend the knowledge that is found necessary by themselves resorting to sources of information (this is perhaps the most important result obtained).

5. A continual effort must be made to enable rational use to be made of the valuable auxiliaries made available by modern technology. Rational use means essentially perfect integration of the auxiliary method with the teaching.

Here we have the strongest possible support for the case-study method, and a plea for the intelligent integration of modern educational technology into methods of teaching.

Educational technology

Educational equipment of a mechanical or electrical nature frightens some teachers. For some of these teachers, the fear is of physical inadequacy and perhaps is more common among women than men. It is a fear that the equipment will not work, that it is heavy to carry, that its breakdown would make the teacher appear inefficient. For other teachers, the fear is more psychological and consists fundamentally of a suspicion that the machine will replace the teacher.

Both of these fears have a sufficient by small element of truth in them to produce strong resistance among many teachers to the use of some educational technical equipment such as overhead projectors, film projectors or even audio-tapes.

It is quite true that sometimes the equipment does not work. There are two simple remedies: one is to take an appropriate training course enabling teachers to handle the equipment. A second remedy is to prepare in advance each use of the equipment so that technical capability is established before the equipment is utilised operationally.

Equally, there is a small grain of truth in the idea that some machines may partially replace *future* additions to the teaching forces. It is quite possible that video-tapes repeating a carefully prepared programme could relieve two or three hours of teaching time during a week.

But none of these minor events can affect the size of current teaching forces. In the future, every country in Western Europe is certain to have to train and provide a larger teaching force than it has at present. Educational technology at its most extensive use will merely limit this expansion, thus very slightly diminishing the annually increasing proportion of national production spent on education.

Teachers will strengthen their case for better pay and conditions of service if they can be seen by society to be utilising modern technology to the utmost in order to optimise learning processes. Each teacher must become a manager of learning resources. He can then expect a manager's pay.

Use of audio-visual aids

We must expect to see the use of audio-visual aids in teaching expand rapidly over the next decade. This expansion will arise especially because newly-trained teachers will have learned all about the new technologies in their training courses and will be anxious to apply their knowledge as soon as they reach the classroom. This situation presents a serious challenge to the teacher of long experience and service. Either such a teacher can pretend that the new technologies do not exist (in which case he will quickly be labelled " out of date ") or he can take one of the many in-service training courses offered in most countries and then utilise his practical experience to show that he can manage the equipment to better advantage than the recently qualified teacher.

Let us try to discover some of the teaching uses of some new equipment.

1. *Audio-tapes*

Audio-tapes are so much part of the personal equipment of the young that they expect to find such equipment used in the learning process. Audio-tapes can be used for repetition of any form of sound-teaching. This can vary from the play-back of a musical sonata to the repetition of the polished diction of a dramatic actor — or a repeat of a company meeting. Language teaching uses audio-tapes, with or without sound-proofed booths, to teach pronunciation, intonation and the repetition of words and phrases. Teachers of shorthand can use tapes to repeat dictation — while the teacher helps each individual to improve shorthand outlines.

The equipment is a tool to be used with skill, precision and imagination by any professional teacher.

2. *Overhead projector*

The school of the future will probably be provided with an overhead projector built into the teacher's desk in every teaching room. The projector throws a bright image onto a white screen. The equipment is usable in daylight. It projects colours. It can even incorporate apparently moving models by the use of a little ingenuity from the user. Chalk and talk have not ended their career in the classroom, but chalk has been outmoded by the overhead projector. Every serving teacher should first take a course in the use of the overhead projector and then insist on the provision of one for each teaching room.

3. *Film*

Film projection requires a projector and sometimes a projectionist. Large numbers of specialist films are now available on business, administration, management and commercial and industrial processes. Such films can best be used with large audiences especially assembled for an occasion. Films cost money to hire (though many firms lend them free) and need care in use as well as expedition in return to the owner.

The film is likely to be used for major occasions only and/or to be absorbed within a system of closed-circuit television distribution which can be used at will in each teaching room.

4. *Film-strips*

Film strips are simply strips of film. They are projected on to a white surface by a film-strip projector and are cheap to buy, easy to show and carry considerable value as visual support material to a well-prepared teaching period.

Film-strips are available in almost any subject. They can be bought cheaply and can be re-used often. A real advantage over some other forms of visual aid is that each section of the film-strip can be used as an individual picture, thus enabling the teacher to pause as the teaching situation requires.

5. *Closed-circuit television*

Some schools and colleges are already being built with a closed-circuit television outlet point in every teaching room. Most existing schools and colleges in London have been equipped with several receiving points which can be used to accept the three major national television programmes, *and* up to nine additional direct-line programmes provided by the Inner London Education Authority.

This equipment opens up entirely new possibilities of teams of teachers preparing teaching programmes which can be transmitted

to many different teaching rooms and which, by the use of video-tapes, can be re-used many times.

6. *Video-tapes*

Video-tapes are magnetic tapes which can store sound and vision in much the same way as the audio-tape stores sound. There are several kinds of video-tape recorders which can record parts of any national programme, can duplicate a direct-line programme, or can be used to record sections of a film. Video-tapes may be one piece of equipment which could be used to save some of the time-consuming repetition inherent in the direct oral provision of information to different groups. But the provision of information must be supported by oral discussion, reinforced by practical exercises, clarified by explanation of difficulties and engraved on the tablets of the memory by recapitulation. For all these purposes the teacher is indispensable.

7. *The computer classroom*

Experiments have already been conducted in the United States of America in the provision of a computer controlled learning situation in a classroom. The pupils each occupy a separate sound-proofed booth. The computer is programmed to give information by audio-tape (via headphones) and video-tape (via a television receiver). After the information is given, the computer tests and checks that the material has been learned.

By 1972, no authenticated research information had become available about the relative success of this learning method.

Perhaps fortunately, the cost of computer time is very high so we may have to wait some years for the computer classroom. We must, however, expect that experimental work in this field is virtually certain over the next decade.

Team teaching

One certain consequence of the use of new methods of teaching, including educational technology, is that teachers will become far more involved in co-operative activity than ever before. Team teaching is essential when students are involved in casestudies, group projects or role-playing. The schools of the future are likely to be larger than in the past, and thus involve the appointment of several subject specialists who will co-operate in each discipline. Team teaching is not easy to begin, but it can be very fruitful educationally when experience has built a pratical method. In some forms of teaching, like that for the subject of business economics in Sweden, it is essential

for the teachers of several specialist subjects to work as a team continuously. Accountancy, law, economics and company organisation may all have to be taught in a carefully integrated sequence.

Similarly, some aspects of educational technology encourage or require teacher co-operation. Teams of teachers can design programmes and prepare materials for audio-taped or video-taped teaching programmes. In this way, the best abilities of each teacher are utilised for the benefit of every pupil. Closed-circuit television requires several teachers both to prepare the programme material and to provide the recapitulation processes. Film strips and overhead projector slides can be used by all the teachers in a school or college.

The techniques of team teaching have rarely been taught so far in the teacher training institutions. Modern methodology will compel the introduction of these skills at the training stage so that new entrants to the teaching professions will be well equipped for their role as team members.

Aspects of practical work experience

There is strong theoretical support among educationists for the association of general vocational or specific vocational education with practical work experience. In the case of employed students released from work to study topics closely related to their occupations, this concept often works very well. In the case of full-time pupils or students trying to obtain practical work experience related to study, the concept seems to work badly.

Even in carefully devised sandwich courses (e.g. six months at work followed by six months of study), there is great difficulty in obtaining practical work experience which properly complements the periods of study. Perhaps the engineering and construction industries are reasonably successful in providing training complementary to study, but business and administrative education has rarely achieved success in this form of education.

The difficulty lies primarily in the fact that employers find it very costly to train "non-productive" employees. It seems doubtful whether full-time education can overcome this difficulty, which is made greater by the fact that each firm, or local authority, may employ different clerical and office procedures.

Further difficulties arise:

1. from trade union views which, in some countries, object to training which appears to provide unpaid or underpaid employees;

2. from the problem of utilising teachers' working time if pupils undertake practical work-experience in place of normal teaching.

Experience is beginning to suggest that a new approach may be necessary. One way of combining practical work experience with study for older pupils is to abandon the current academic year for the pupils in favour of the calendar year. Thus, the pupils would be taught in school or college for the normal 38 or 40 weeks, but would be expected to work (at proper rates of pay) for (say) 10 more weeks a year. Naturally this system could operate only above the compulsory school age, but this method could still provide up to 30 weeks of practical work experience over three years. Such experience would be valuable because it was real.

The shape of the buildings

Changing methodology in education requires careful rethinking of the shape of a school or college. The standard teaching room for 30 to 40 pupils or students is becoming less and less practical for the new methods of teaching. It is becoming essential to divide teaching groups into different sizes for different aspects of teaching. The formal lecture or the television programme may be offered to two or three hundred people. The seminar or discussion group might be, ideally, 12 to 15 people. The tutorial for 1, 2, or 3 students may require many small rooms; while student self-study of tapes or records may need individual sound-proofed booths.

The Council of Europe has organised two courses on the educational aspects of school buildings, one in 1968 (Austria) and another in 1969 (Netherlands).[1] The report of the Netherlands course stated that it was imperative for education authorities to develop a willingness to re-think the whole pattern of what a school (or college) would be like. The traditional rigid conception of the school as a system of classes may disappear and the school may become increasingly a centre of educational, social and informational service. Thus, the new material resources, mainly in the electronic field, challenged the whole organisational set-up of education and consequently of school building (Council of Europe report, p. 14).

The Austrian meeting of 1968 went even further in its detailed consideration of new forms of educational building. The Council of Europe report of the meeting stated that there was a trend away from schools which consisted of a series of equal-sized general classrooms plus a number of specialised rooms. This traditional concept was being replaced by one which saw the total floor area as a more or less flexible continuum of spaces, the various parts of which were distinguished less by walls and partitions than by the equipment, fittings and other facilities provided for different activities. As part of this concept, these facilities and spaces were so arranged as to allow for a wide range of educational groupings, including individual pupils working on their own, small groups of 6 to 12, or very large groupings of

1. See also *School Building*, Council of Europe, 1971.

100 or more according to the kind of work which is being done. At the same time, it was recognised that certain special activities would still need enclosed accommodation to prevent disturbance from noise.

Even the traditional concept of a library was challenged by the experts, for the library was now seen not solely as a book depository, but as one only of a number of resources to which pupils needed easy access. These resources included the possibility of selecting and projecting or playing films, film-strips, records or tapes, of utilising calculating machines, typewriters and the facilities of workshops and studios.

The shape of educational buildings undeniably influences the styles of educational method which the teachers can use. If teachers are to be able to call upon the wide range of teaching methodology which is essential for business and administrative education, it is vital that the buildings should become a function of educational methods rather than determining them.

CHAPTER 6

EVALUATION

Critique of existing methods

Evaluation of pupils and students for educational purposes has a profound influence on future life chances. This evaluation takes several forms. There may be written tests, practical tests, teacher-assessments, achievement tests and potentiality tests. The most commonly used styles of evaluation for young people in school or college have for nearly a century been written. Only during the past decade have we begun to accept that some forms of written examination imply a judgment in favour of literary skills and result in a subjective written assessment. Written communication is a highly sophisticated skill to which, in the past, over-much importance may have been given in evaluating the complex qualities of human beings.

It is a reflection on the relative readiness of education to change its practice when we consider that, in the United Kingdom, an extensive research study showed as early as 1936 that methods of evaluating written examinations were open to serious criticism. The material was published in 1936 in a book entitled *An Examination of Examinations* by Hartog and Rhodes. The study showed that considerable variation must be expected in the marks awarded especially to essay-style examination answers, by different examiners marking the same script. If the scripts were re-submitted to the same examiners after a few months, the examiner was very likely to award a different mark, sometimes greatly different from the previous assessment.

Not only are examiners variable. Candidates can vary in health from day to day. Or again, where a choice of examination questions is given, the same candidate can obtain different marks which vary with different selections of the actual questions answered.

Teachers vary not only in ability but in knowledge, experience and interest. As we have already suggested, teachers are often left without guidance about the relative importance of a given section of a syllabus. Hence, the teaching given to different pupils may vary not only in quality but also in the relative quantities of time allocated to different aspects of a syllabus.

All these variables throw tremendous responsibility on the examination systems of various countries. Evidence is accumulating that the examination systems of the first three quarters of the 20th century will not be capable of defence in the more critical social structure of the last quarter of that century.

Objectives of evaluation

Parents, pupils and employers are likely to view evaluation methods more critically in future. Parents are becoming more anxious to enable their children to climb up the ladder of educational achievement. Pupils and students become daily more critical of long-established educational practice. Cost-conscious employers, caught in the conflict between profitability and growing social control, are determined to obtain better value for the rising cost of education and training.

Terminal secondary examinations are especially difficult to defend because they have become forced to try to measure two different objectives. Many terminal secondary examinations in Western Europe were instituted for the purpose of providing a statement or certificate about the success or failure of a pupil in a given course of study. Unfortunately, the output of the secondary schools divided into two kinds of pupil: those who entered employment, and those who wished to enter some form of higher education. For those who wished to enter higher education, the terminal secondary examination also became the admission qualification for higher education. Because there has been a limited number of places available in higher education, this admission qualification frequently became highly competitive. Even in countries like the Federal Republic of Germany, where possession of the *Abitur* carried automatic admission to a university place, the competition has expressed itself in the number of candidates who dropped out of the school courses before actually taking the examination.

The objectives of evaluating pupils and students for business and administrative occupations are probably more varied than in any other range of occupations.

School or college pupils may enter junior clerical occupations direct from school. At the other end of the scale, university graduates with post-graduate specialisms may enter business as trainee managers, or the central government service as administrative civil servants. Between these two extremes, there is a wide range of skills, capabilities and potentialities which need to be measured as accurately as possible if the right people are to be enabled to enter the right occupation.

Academic-type examinations like the *Abitur* or the *Baccalauréat* or the General Certificate of Education in the United Kingdom are unlikely to be suitable for the evaluation of a junior clerk. Specialist

business employees like accountants may be similarly unsuitably assessed by an examination which has become utilised mainly as a selecting mechanism to determine those who may be permitted to go on to advanced academic or professional study.

Omissions of evaluation in conventional examinations

For employment in business and administration, there are some serious omissions in conventional examination structures. It is, for example, extremely important in this type of occupation for the employee to have a level of skill in aural (listening) comprehension appropriate to the level of occupation. Yet aural comprehension is, in most countries never evaluated directly. In some countries where there is a strong element of oral examination, it is possible that aural comprehension may be unconsciously assessed, but in other countries where the examination is wholly written, this skill is not measured and so may become neglected within the teaching process.

Employers need to know many other aspects of potential employees which conventional examinations do not attempt to assess. The Interlaken Conference on Commercial Education suggested that qualities such as working method, ability to analyse a situation, imagination, foresight, and ability to distinguish essentials from incidentals were all qualities on which depended success in business life. Where are these qualities assessed in conventional examination structures? The examination papers themselves not only fail to assess important qualities such as those mentioned above; it is even true that unreal or deliberately unusual situations are presented in examination papers if only to ensure that standard questions are not asked year after year.

Scales and marks

Somehow, an examiner's evaluation of an examination candidate must be translated into numbers or symbols which convey a rank order. This rank order is then communicated, for example to an employer, by the entry of a number or a symbol on a certificate or statement.

From that stage onward, the reader of any such certificate or statement is left to believe that some candidates are " better " or " worse " than others in accordance with the figures or numbers on the certificate. This apparent quantification of ability can be dangerously misleading.

The quantification is most misleading when the scale of marks is related to a finely-graded scale such as a percentage. It is simply

not possible for human beings to be regarded as " better " or " worse " because the marks obtained in any examination are 65 % for one candidate and 64 % for another.

Different countries in Western Europe have widely differing methods of assessing candidates by scales or marks. The Norwegian classification at terminal secondary level is a six-point scale (excellent; very good; good; fair; poor; and failure) for written examinations, but a four-point scale (very good; good; fair; and failure) for oral examinations.

In Sweden, a five-point scale has recently (1971) replaced a seven-point scale. Five is the highest mark and one is the lowest. In order to overcome variations of standard over the different regions and different secondary schools, a normal standard has been worked out for the whole country. Thus a grade of three means an average performance compared to all other pupils in the grade throughout the country studying the same subject. This grade is based on a normal curve of ability so that, of the candidates in any given year:

7 %	achieve	grade	1
24 %	"	"	2
38 %	"	"	3
24 %	"	"	4
7 %	"	"	5

In the United Kingdom, the General Certificate of Education at Advanced Level is awarded on a seven-point scale. The top five grades (A, B, C, D and E) are all passes in a descending order of value. The next grade (" O ") means failure at Advanced Level but a pass at Ordinary Level. The remaining grade (" F ") means failure. Proposals were made during 1972 to replace this seven-point scale with a twenty-point scale which would omit any reference to pass or failure. The proposal would incorporate a statement that any given grade of pass would have to be regarded in the light of the fact that, on a twenty-point scale, it would be very difficult to expect a standard error of less than two points, i.e. there is now arising a recognition that human beings cannot be accurately evaluated on the finely-graded scales often used in the past.

Until 1969, the system of grading at upper secondary level in France was a twenty-one point scale (0-20). Between 1969 and 1971, there was an experimental period of marking on a five-point scale, A to E. The five-point scale was, however, found unsatisfactory, so in 1971 the Minister of Education decided on a return to the twenty-one point scale.

The Council of Europe study on *Secondary School Leaving Examinations* published in 1971 revealed a wide variation in the scale and marks patterns in the educational systems of Western Europe.

The results of this survey can be summarised as follows:

Table 7

Marking scale	*Examples of countries using the scale*
100	Belgium, Greece, Ireland
0-20	Cyprus, France
0-13	Denmark
0-10	Spain, Iceland, Netherlands
1-10	Italy, Turkey
1- 6	Norway, Switzerland, Federal Republic of Germany
1- 5	Austria, Sweden
1- 4	Finland
Source: *Secondary School Leaving Examinations*, page 23.	

This table reveals the extraordinary variety of the scales on which human beings are evaluated. The variety also shows how difficult it is to expect transferability of educational certificates from one country to another.

The pass mark on several of the marking scales set out above was often about the middle of the scale. We must ask, why is this? Must it be assumed the half of all our school pupils are doomed to failure before they even begin the school course? If so, then we must begin to question the entire concept of a pass/failure approach to examinations.

This formidable variety gives relevance to a statement made in 1971 about commercial education in Finland. This statement indicated that, for the future, in assessing students' skills and knowledge, the traditional system of numbers would be abandoned altogether and a system of verbal grades would be adopted in its place. Skills and knowledge would thus be assessed on certificates as "excellent", "good" and "satisfactory". Should a student not reach a "satisfactory" level, the number of hours of instruction received in a given subject would be entered instead of a grade. In practice, this would mean that it would no longer be possible to fail in a subject at a commercial college, nor would the students have to repeat a course by staying down in the same year of the course.

This is an example of an educational system which is thinking seriously about the abandonment of the pass/fail concept.

The " examen bilan "

French educationists have been working out the possibilities of a profile of each examination candidate: a balance-sheet approach stating the achievements, potentialities, strengths and weaknesses of each individual. This " balance-sheet " of qualities is likely to be of much greater value for career guidance and for employers' information than the stark inequity of " pass " or " failure ".

The examination system — a critical path

Critical path analysis in management is concerned with the pre-planning of industrial or administrative processes in order to show (visually if possible) the critical paths of organisational flow. If the critical path is blocked up, production or construction ceases.

For most pupils, the terminal secondary examination is the most critical path of his life. The examination results do not merely record an assessment of the candidate's achievement over a secondary school course, the examination determines whether the candidate may go on to higher education. If the door is shut on higher education, then the same examination result may still decide into which kinds or levels of occupation the school-leaver may be admitted. Even if the examination permits the candidate to become a new entrant to a commercial office (rather than the factory floor), then the examination may still decide whether the clerk may subsequently be admissible to professional examinations or to part-time forms of higher education.

A " tool-kit " of evaluation methods

This supreme importance of the terminal secondary examination, coupled with the many weaknesses of conventional examinations we have already discussed, lead on to the desirability of providing a " tool-kit " of evaluation methods for the future. A " tool-kit " contains various instruments to aid people whose achievement may be much improved by the use of the tools. In this case, the tools we need are a series of measuring instruments. Each instrument may measure well one aspect of a human being, but we cannot expect that any one single instrument can measure all the varied capacities and potentialities of human beings.

One instrument, the essay test, may enable us to discover if the candidate can write a report under stress. Another instrument, the open book examination, may tell us whether the candidate knows how to discover and use sources of information. A third, the case-study test, can perhaps tell us whether the candidate can call upon his resources in a new situation. Continuous assessment may inform us

about the quality of persistence, or regular output. Oral tests may inform the employer of his potential employee's capacity to use a telephone or to explain a case, or to communicate an instruction. Objective tests may ensure that the candidate has covered the entire syllabus of a subject. Even self-evaluation may have a place in enabling a pupil to estimate his own capabilities in relation to future employment.

All these different measuring instruments help to quantify different human qualities. The instruments themselves may need much improvement, but at least we can try to ensure that we do not allow ourselves to be misled by using one single, scientifically doubtful, measuring tool.

Essay examinations

Far too much emphasis has been laid in the past on the use of essay-style examinations as the single measuring tool. It is quite true that, in business and administrative education, the capacity to communicate in writing clearly and concisely is an essential skill. This capacity is, however, not the same as asking a candidate in stress conditions to write with imagination and knowledge about a topic decided by an examiner, and to write wholly without access to sources of information other than an inevitably imperfect memory.

The open-ended essay may have its place among a kit of measuring instruments, but this place should be a small one. If education is, in any sense, a preparation for life, the measuring instruments of relative success in an educational process should also have some relevance to life. How many times during a working or leisure lifetime does any person actually write an essay? The concept of essay-writing should be rated as a limited and inaccurate instrument in the assessment of educational achievement.

Open book examinations

Open book examinations provide the candidates with reference books which may be used in order to answer the questions set in the examinations. This type of examination does enable a candidate to utilise a practical skill, i.e. the ability to find information if given the source.

However, there are weaknesses in open book examinations unless they are very carefully structured.

The first weakness is that the examination does not measure the ability to find material. If the questions are general and open-ended, then the examination is mainly measuring the ability to write well

under stress, to organise given material in a logical order, and to reduce a large amount of material to a comprehensible, summarised statement.

It is this last point which brings out another observed weakness in open book examinations. It is that the capacity of reducing a large amount of material to a comprehensive summarised statement is, in itself, a sophisticated skill. Many candidates in open book examinations have been unable to utilise their sources of information in order to provide relevant information. The reference books contain so much material that some candidates become confused or disheartened and merely write down regurgitated — or even copied — pages of disjointed information.

Case studies examinations

Case studies examinations can be of two kinds. First, it is possible to require a candidate in the loneliness of the crowd in an examination room to answer questions without communicating with other candidates. Second, it is also possible to provide a group of students or pupils with a case study to work on as a group or team project.

The first kind of case study can be marked with the same techniques and the same strengths and weaknesses as any other written examination. The second kind, i.e. the group project, presents special difficulties of marking because it is not easy to distinguish accurately the contribution made by each individual to the group's activity.

However, the group project does permit some assessment, however inaccurate, of both written and oral contribution, as well as of more indefinable qualities such as ability to work within a team, capacity to get on with difficult colleagues and ability to compromise.

Just as in the case of open book examinations, success in this specialist area of examining depends on very careful structuring of the examination. The room accommodation, the number of students in the project-group, the time-span must all be appropriate to the case study involved. The examiner must adopt a conscious policy either of directing the activity, or of deliberately not directing it. Work undertaken by participants outside the project rooms must be as carefully assessed as that directly visible. Given these control factors, examining of group projects on case studies can be a most valuable measuring instrument.

Continuous assessment

Continuous assessment can be of several kinds. It may be regular observation of class activity evaluated by a subjective assessment on a literal basis (say A to E) at the end of a period of study. Alternatively,

the teacher may set a written or oral test each week or each month, and merely add the marks together to form a final assessment. A third form of continuous assessment relies upon a minor thesis or long-term project of individual study which the student carries out throughout the course of study.

All these forms of continuous assessment are open to the criticism that the assessment remains subjective. Nevertheless, continuous assessment carries valuable qualities in many educational programmes. The method gives a much sounder picture of the student at work over a period of time than can ever be shown by the conventional attempt to measure a year's work by examination in half a day, when the candidate may or may not be in good health.

Oral tests

Despite the fact that oral expression in business and administrative education almost certainly occupies more of an employee's life than written expression, there are some examination systems which exclude oral examining except in such subjects as foreign languages. The United Kingdom has a long tradition of this approach to oral examining. Even in countries which use both written and oral tests, it is quite common to find that the oral test contributes a smaller proportion of the final mark than does the written test.

Oral tests are difficult to mark and very much open to subjective influences. However, the developing use of audio-tapes with structured questions and tape-space for answers may be able to reduce the subjectivity inherent in the face-to-face oral test. It may be possible in the future to use video-tapes and a closed-circuit television camera, but even this will not wholly eliminate the subjective element. It is also worthy of note that the greater the effort made to improve reliability of the test, the greater is the cost. Whatever the cost, oral testing of many different subjects is likely to be extended in future if only because of its important " backwash " effect on the teaching.

Objective tests

Objective tests are tests which can be marked without the subjective element which is inevitable where the marker is required to make a choice or to give a value judgment.

The simplest form of objective test is to ask a question to which the answer must be " yes " or " no ". For example " Has the United Kingdom joined the Common Market? "

The candidate is required to answer " yes " or " no ". Often the two possible answers are printed beside the question and the candidate simply draws a ring round the selected answer. The right answers can then be checked and the total marks added by a clerk.

Educationists will immediately object that this simple form of question does not reveal more than the simplest skills, or direct factual knowledge from the candidate.

Objective testing has, however, become steadily more sophisticated over the past decade and is now developing a capacity to call upon complicated intellectual skills.

Thus, examining boards in the United Kingdom are now developing a multiple choice objective test in subjects such as economics. Here is an easy example:

At the beginning of a financial year, the real national income of a given country is $ 5 000 million. At the end of the financial year, the real national income has declined by 10 %, but inflation has increased overall prices by 100 %. The national income at the end of the financial year in monetary terms is:

A $ 4 500 million
B $ 5 500 million
C $ 9 000 million
D $ 10 000 million
E $ 11 000 million

The candidate is required to draw a ring round the letter which stands beside the correct answer. The method of using a letter beside each answer is to simplify marking to the point that properly standardised and designed answer books can be read by a computer provided with optical character recognition.

Objective tests can be designed to cover an entire syllabus. The tests can be marked very quickly and without using the expensive time of a professional educationist. However, such testing does require professional educationists to construct the test.

There are weaknesses with objective tests, for they cannot easily test those elusive qualities like imagination or the ability to present material in an ordered and logical way.

However, objective testing has an important place in our tool-kit of measuring instruments. Each item of the test can be pre-tested and carefully analysed statistically after each use. Thus it is possible to ensure that each item of (perhaps) a seventy-question test is working reliably and is not misunderstood by the candidates.

Assembling the kit of measuring instruments

All the different forms of evaluation set out above can be used in different combinations to meet the needs of particular groups of pupils or students, of different subjects and of different levels in each subject.

For each different use, a committee of teachers and inspectors should be able to meet together and decide upon the best combination of testing method which will meet any given need. It may be of some interest however to quote from the Council of Europe/Oxford University Study on Economics Education:

"The general tendency in Western Europe appears to be leading towards a multi-sided assessment structure which includes the following aspects:

1. essay style tests,
2. objective style tests,
3. course assessment by teachers,
4. an oral assessment."

It should be made possible to associate businessmen or administrators with some aspects of these examination structures. External examiners from business or administration will add a dimension of realism both to pupils and teachers.

A Council of Europe Conference on Examination Methods

There is a growing interest among professional educationists in new and more scientifically controlled methods of evaluating school and college candidates. The Council of Europe Conferences on Commercial Education at Interlaken in 1967 and at Munich in 1971 both recommended the Council to organise a conference on examination methods. This conference was held in Berlin during November 1971. The final report is available on request from the Council of Europe (Doc. CCC/EGT (72) 100).

It is clear from many sources in Western Europe that a great deal of research and experimentation is required into examination methods before professional educationists can feel satisfied that the examination is a consequence of conscious social, educational and economic needs, and is not allowed to become the determinant of educational activity.

CHAPTER 7

TEACHER TRAINING AND RETRAINING

Teachers now being trained may still be in the classroom in the year A.D. 2010. This blunt fact forces upon educationists the necessity for extreme care and forethought in the planning of training for teachers.

Not only is it necessary to provide the trainee teacher with specialist knowledge, with professional skills and with appropriate practical experience, it is also necessary to provide him with mental equipment which will enable him to cope with the dynamics of a rapidly evolving society.

Forms of change

For the teacher, change takes several different forms, each of which may require a separate strategy for successful assimilation.

First, there is constant change in subject knowledge in every specialisation. We could regard this as vertical change for the teacher. In order to cope with subject development, it is essential to keep up with the subject by constant reference to journals, by reading of new books, by attending courses and conferences on this subject and, preferably, by personal research.

Second, there is pedagogic change. This could be regarded as horizontal change. New aspects of teaching method spread horizontally over a wide range of individual subjects. New theories of learning and of teaching may alter the philosophy of approach to the teaching of all subjects. In this field, it is necessary to study the educational press, to visit different educational institutions, and particularly to discover new trends in other countries.

Yet a third category of change for the teacher arises from the rapidly changing technologies of both industry and commerce. Some of this change can be absorbed from publications, but the only practical way to keep up to date is to enter industry or commerce as an employee — even if for short periods of a month during the longest vacation.

Knowledge of social and commercial structures

However much we aim primarily at the development of the individual's personality through education, we must aim, secondarily, to equip that individual to become an income-earning member of society. Unless we know something of changing prospects, changing occupations, and even changing employer/employee relationships, we shall be ill-equipped to guide the young. We need to remind ourselves that the output of schools is the input of offices and factories.

But the schools and colleges, especially in large towns, have input from very varied social circumstances. These variations in home and social circumstances may condition the kind of educational method required. It is purposeless to utilise highly complex linguistic structures if the pupils are incapable of receiving the communication signals. It is equally misguided to use examples drawn solely from southern Germany if the students consist of Italian immigrants or of Pakistanis.

Teacher training of the past (and much of the present) has placed severe limitations on the potential teacher's practical knowledge of social, industrial and commercial life. Typically, the trainee teacher has transferred from school to teacher training college at the age of 18 or so; has undertaken three or four years of college life; and has returned to school to teach. This process carries almost no knowledge of the occupational or social environments for which the teacher will prepare his pupils.

It is true that in commercial education there are many teachers who have spent some years in commercial employment before entering teaching. But there remain, even in commercial education, many teachers who have never worked in an office.

Social and occupational change is so rapid and of such consequence to commercial education that it seems essential, in the future, first, to expect that *all* trainee teachers should experience at least a year in a paid occupation before entering a training course, and, second, that teachers of commercial subjects should spend at least a further year in a commercial occupation after the training course and before employment as a teacher. It is significant that the Council of Europe 1970 Conference at Munich on the training of teachers for commercial education recommended a threefold course of training:

1. a general academic education with professional specialisation;
2. practical business training;
3. pedagogic training (report, p. 30).

Initial training — consecutive or concurrent?

The three-sided style of teacher training recommended above immediately poses the question of whether these aspects of training should be provided concurrently or consecutively. Current methods for the provision of initial training (i.e. that provided before the teacher commences professional duties) are varied within Western Europe. Austria offers a four-year course of concurrent pedagogic and academic preparation. In the United Kingdom, the more highly specialised teachers complete a university degree course of three or four years and then follow it with a one-year course of professional training. The Federal Republic of Germany requires a year of experience in business, followed by four years at the University, followed by a two-year course of professional training. If we are to have three major areas of study or training, some further thought may have to be given to the structure of training of teachers for commercial and administrative education.

Let us first consider the trainee teacher who intends to teach economics as his main career. It will be necessary for this trainee to reach a high level of knowledge in his subject, to acquire the pedagogic skills, and also to complete the suggested minimum of two years' business or administrative experience.

Current systems of training teachers frequently assume that the school leaver must immediately enter higher education. The weakness of this system is that it carries forward the values, traditions and habits of a closed society from early maturity into adulthood. On leaving teacher training college, such a student may feel a right to a customary working year of 35 to 40 weeks. This attitude of mind carries antipathy or opposition to a working year of 48 weeks in an office. This example is, however, only one of the natural manifestations of thought-processes of school pupils who become trained teachers and then return immediately to school as teachers.

Both for the benefit of the teacher and the pupils, we should encourage the potential teacher to break out of the closed society of the school to enter the world of work. Therefore it is suggested that one, or preferably two, years of paid occupation in business or administration should precede the entry of a potential teacher into a teacher training college. Thereafter the specialism in theoretical knowledge could be acquired more quickly. In these circumstances there appear to be advantages in the concurrent provision of pedagogical knowledge and specialist subject knowledge.

Recruitment from specialist occupations

Now we must consider the late entrant to teaching. Such a person may have had up to twenty years of practical experience, let us say, in office occupations, and has perhaps become an office manager.

In order to teach office organisation, such a person needs limited additions to his specialist knowledge, but he does need extensive pedagogic preparation if he is to communicate successfully his practical knowledge and experience. In such cases, the equivalent of a year of pedagogical training, possibly in modules spread over several years, combined with a deepening of specialist knowledge, seems sufficient. These two aspects of knowledge, allied to some practice teaching experience, may be best provided concurrently.

Such teachers are especially valuable both in general vocational and in specific vocational education. Their strength lies in their practical experience. Additional incentives may have to be offered in future to encourage such recruits to the teaching profession. Some disincentives, such as problems of superannuation, will have to be removed in order to maximise the proportion of practical knowledge available to the pupils or students.

Length of courses

The length of teacher training courses varies greatly within the countries of Western Europe.

However, there are several levels of teaching, and thus possibly several levels of teacher training.

The Council of Europe Munich Conference of 1970 recommended three levels of training related to three levels of teaching. These were:

Table 8

Teacher training related to levels of teaching				
	Level of teaching	*Academic or professional training*	*Practical business training*	*Pedagogic training*
1	For routine office work	Good general education, not necessarily at university	Minimum of 1 year pre-training	1 year
2	For ordinary commercial posts	University degree, 4 years preferred; 3 years suggested by some groups	Minimum of 1 year	1 year
3	For higher commercial posts	University degree, preferably a higher degree (4-6 years) Alternatively, high level practical experience over several years plus a relevant commercial qualification	Minimum of 1 year Several years	1 year 1 year

This programme is something of a compromise between short (3 years) and long (8 years) teacher training programmes as they existed in 1970. The programme is practical and realistic. Its general adoption would mean a real step forward in the harmonisation of educational systems in Western Europe.

An interesting comparison is available from the United Kingdom where entirely new proposals for teacher training were published in 1972 (the James Report). The James Report recommended that the education and training of teachers should be seen as falling into three consecutive stages or "cycles": the first, personal education, the second, pre-service training and induction, the third, in-service education and training.

The length of these courses for initial training would be as follows:

	First cycle	*Second cycle*
Either	2 years for a diploma in higher education	2 years, of which the first would be in a teacher training college and the second under supervision in a school; the award for success would be a degree in Education (B.A. Education)
Or	3 or 4 years for a university degree	

The first and second cycles cover initial (i.e. pre-service) training and would thus have a duration of 4 to 6 years.

In-service training

The James Report's third cycle is concerned with in-service training. For the first time in the United Kingdom there is a recognition that too much dependence has been placed in the past upon the initial training of teachers. Throughout their forty years of service, teachers need to be updated in several different ways. First, the subject specialism must be maintained at a high level; second, the teaching method must be refurbished; third, development in industry and commerce must be understood. The James Report recommended that all teachers should be entitled to release with pay for in-service training and education on a scale not less than the equivalent of one term (about 13 weeks) in every seven years and, as soon as possible, on a scale of one term in every five years.

It must be stressed that the James Report is no more than a series of recommendations made by educationists to the government. The government will have to decide whether to find the money (and the will) to make the proposals into practical reality.

Nevertheless, the James proposals on in-service training simply reflect the growing concern of educationists about the need constantly to update, reinforce and re-invigorate teaching. Several countries in Europe have new proposals under consideration. The Council of Europe report *Further Training of Teachers* (1971) found that there was an enormous variety of institutions, centres and bodies for the promotion and organisation of the further training of teachers. The same report also found that the efforts of the several countries were confined to benevolent support for what was already being done, yet without a consciously determined policy of planning for the future.

This latter point is of great significance for teachers. The truth is that education is going through a revolution of social philosophy, of methodology and of educational practice.

In business and administrative education, almost every existing subject is changing rapidly and new subjects are being introduced. This rapidity of change cannot be absorbed by " benevolent support for what is already being done ". It has become essential to re-think the entire policy of in-service training with a view to a profound re-orientation of the teacher-product of earlier pre-service training schemes. Just as in industry, entire occupations die and the workers need retraining for jobs not even invented when they left school, so teachers must be retrained for a teaching life wholly different from that envisaged when they first entered the teacher training college. Such retraining must, for success, incorporate periods of renewal by working in practical business or administrative life. Such re-invigoration should become a regular feature of the in-service training of all teachers in vocational education.

The teacher as organiser and manager

We have already referred to the changing role of the teacher. No longer will his life consist of talking to a static class in order to communicate knowledge, followed by exercises from the whole class for recapitulation. The teacher's future role is that of an organiser of many individuals occupied in individual or group activities. The individuals will be following self-learning processes, and they will regard the teacher as a source of knowledge, a counsellor of learning programmes and a manager of learning resources. The learning resources will consist of a range of educational technology, much of which was listed in Chapter 5 on Methods of teaching.

No teacher training course which took place more than a decade ago will have prepared the teacher for this new role. Future pre-service training courses will begin to do so, but in-service training courses for this very purpose are essential for all those teachers who were trained ten years ago and still have up to thirty years left of a teaching career.

Specialist teaching or generalist teaching?

A fundamental activity of both pre-service and in-service teacher training must be to maintain the duality of the teacher's role as educator and specialist knowledge teacher.

The Council of Europe Munich Conference stated that education, in general, aims at developing the human personality through intellectual, cultural, technical, physical and moral training. Teachers in commercial and administrative education are manifestly preparing their pupils for a range of occupations. How often can we hope to ensure, through teacher training, that the students are as well educated as they are knowledgeable?

The answer certainly does not lie in the provision of additional subjects for teaching cultural, moral, and physical education. Such additions would severely overtax the student and, when tried, have achieved little success in the widest educational sense.

The teacher training course can, however, aim to make every teacher a member of a world human family with an intellectual, cultural, technical, physical and moral infrastructure. Such a teacher will teach engineering with culture, business practice with morality, economics with intellect and perhaps even domestic science combined with health education. In short, a well-educated teacher will prepare well-educated pupils whatever the subject taught. That aim makes a challenging task for the teacher training course in a world of advancing specialisms.

A wider approach to teacher training

Teacher training is not completed by the addition of pedagogical theory and method to a specialist subject. Nor is it completed by the policy, outlined above, of making every teacher a widely educated person. There are further skills and areas of knowledge which need to be incorporated into the teacher training programme.

The Council of Europe Conference at Baden/Vienna in 1967 set out some of these skills and areas of knowledge. The conference listed the following indispensable elements of teacher training:

1. a knowledge of general and social psychology, with a special knowledge of the psychology of the adolescent;

2. a study of sociology, in terms of the structure, working and problems of modern society;

3. a study of non-traditional methods of teaching;

4. knowledge of vocational guidance and personal counselling;

5. an understanding of the aims and methods of out-of-school education, i.e. in the factory or office, or in the club or society.

These are wide areas of knowledge indeed, especially if some are simply additional subjects in a heavy programme of work. Yet without this knowledge the teacher is deprived of some of his most valuable resources when acting as an educator rather than a teacher of a special subject. The good teacher is far more than an imparter of knowledge. He (or she) becomes counsellor, friend and confidante whether this role is sought or not. In the conditions of modern schools, where pupils are deliberately taught independence and a questioning attitude, it becomes more than ever important for the teacher to be accepted as a friend; and a friend who knows the pupil not only by his school attendance, but also by the social and familial and economic conditions he occupies at home, or that he will face in the office or the factory.

Probationary employment

Teaching is so deeply a function of individual personality that it is very difficult for the trainee teacher to know whether he will be successful until he has undergone that lonely and stressful experience of teaching in a classroom. The teacher who fails, yet remains in teaching, faces a lifetime of misery, though even this tragedy may not be as important as the loss of skilled teaching to generations of pupils.

For these reasons, it is essential for each trainee teacher to have a fairly long period of teaching on probation. At the end of this time, the teacher who is unsuccessful and/or unhappy may withdraw — or be advised to do so by the Education Authority which employed him.

By its very nature, the cycle of education in a school or college cannot be less than a year. Hence probation, at a minimum, must be one year so that the trainee teacher can experience all the activities (including examination setting and marking) which occupy the school year.

In the United Kingdom, probation is normally for one year. Several other countries, e.g. Federal Republic of Germany and Cyprus, require a two-year period of probation.

Probation is certainly essential, but two years does seem a very long time to leave the probationary teacher in a situation of insecurity. Perhaps a standard period of one year would be sufficient for those teachers who could be seen to be successful. Doubtful or marginal cases could have probation extended for one further year.

National supervision of teacher training

Education historically began as a local service locally provided. As the size of the local government unit grew, so did the administration of education, but the ties to the locality were still strong and education in many countries remains a decentralised service.

It is beginning to appear possible that the varying life chances for pupils which derive from variations in local authority policies may yet cause education in schools and colleges to become more centralised, but the time is not yet.

However, initial teacher training and in-service training is very much a national matter, for teachers may go to teach in any part of a given country. It is necessary on the grounds of social justice that the same level of teaching competence should be provided over the entire country. Hence, there is arising a case for a national centre or institution to supervise or co-ordinate all teacher training.

At present, teacher training, and especially in-service training, lies in the hands of several different agencies in most Western European countries. Even in France with a centralised education system, teacher training may be administered by the Ministry of Education, the regional education authorities *(Académies)*, the National Institute of Education, regional centres of education, regional centres of education and sport, the Research Institute for Mathematical Studies, the St. Cloud Audio-Visual Centre, the Marly-le-Roi Experimental College, the International Centre for Pedagogical Studies at Sèvres, the *Écoles Normales Supérieures* at St. Cloud and Fontenay, and the National Institute for Adult Education at Nancy.

More extensive lists than that given for France could be given for most Western European countries, including the United Kingdom.

It seems possible that each country might consider whether there may be advantages in the formation of a national institute for the co-ordination and development of teacher training.

Commercial and administrative education appears likely to expand rapidly in the future. That sector of education requires special skills, special knowledge, and special experience. If a national institute were to become the national co-ordinator of teacher training, one of its major divisions should be a national centre for teacher training in commercial and administrative education.

International institutions

The Council of Europe Munich Conference in 1970 made two important recommendations to the Council of Europe for the formation of international institutions related to teacher training.

The first was a recommendation to create an international body for teacher training and research in the field of economic and commercial education and the circulation of its findings to governments and professional associations.

The second recommendation concerned the creation of an international economic, technical and pedagogic documentation centre for commercial education for the purpose of issuing bibliographies, translating books and articles from reviews, producing films and providing information on new teaching aids.

It has not proved possible for the Council of Europe to institute these two desirable international institutions. However, a plan is to be developed to designate a number of existing national educational centres as European centres, each specialising in a particular branch of education. For example, the International Schoolbook Institute in Braunschweig will form one European unit, while the Centre for Information in Language Teaching in London will form another.

CHAPTER 8

THE WAY AHEAD

Commercial and administrative education is steadily acquiring an enhanced status. We can confidently forecast a continued rise in the proportion of total employees occupied in clerical, commercial and administrative occupations throughout the world. We see ahead, therefore, a continued rise in both quality and quantity of commercial and administrative education. Machines will progressively take over the physical processes of production. People, i.e. clerks, commercial specialists and administrators, will progressively extend their role of directing, planning and programming the machines. The education for these sophisticated and dynamic roles must consciously plan to remain ahead of change — and this means an education designed to produce change-orientated individuals.

" L'éducation permanente "

Permanent change demands permanent education. No longer can we assume that education ceases with school or university. Re-training and re-education should have already become life-long processes. We must hurry to catch up with the changes which have already taken place.

This means that Ministries of Education, Local Education Authorities and, especially, institutions responsible for training teachers must re-orientate their thinking (and their economic resources) towards re-education and re-training courses.

Democratisation of education

Re-education and re-training relate closely to developing concepts of equality of opportunity. " Opportunity " to most people means economic opportunity, and economic opportunity is becoming increasingly unobtainable without equality of educational opportunity.

Even equality of educational opportunity is no longer a sufficient guarantee of equal economic chances, for primary and secondary education depend largely for their success on such factors of social environment as access to books, parental encouragement and sophisticated linguistic facility.

Hence, it is becoming essential to provide doors to higher education which are open long after the traditional ages of 18 to 20 years. Re-training and re-education must become available to all those who want it almost throughout a normal working life. Re-education and re-training may thus in some instances simply repeat the cultural and linguistic infrastructure of educational advance which is customarily provided — though in a different form — at school.

Equality of opportunity — a modular system

It will not easily be possible to provide re-training and re-education to permit late entry into higher education by full-time education. Hence, it will become essential to prepare schemes by which determined people can reconstruct an educational equipment step by step. A modular system will be required such that each module is complete in itself, and yet carries the student forward to a new stage of study. Such schemes already exist in some countries, but they need extensive development and careful application to the needs of those who left traditional education perhaps many years ago, yet now wish to reclaim their heritage of an open (and real) opportunity for higher education.

An exciting method of attaining this end has been put forward by the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development. Their publication *Equal Educational Opportunity*, from the Centre for Educational Research and Innovation, has suggested that, at birth, each person might be given (say) 16 educational tickets. Each ticket would be worth one year of full-time education. If the individual ceased traditional full-time education after (say) ten years, there would still remain six years of full-time education which could be claimed at any later stage in life.

Such a concept would clearly cost society a great deal of money. Difficult questions of maintenance and replacement of occupational salary would be inevitable. Nevertheless, the idea contains a seed which, properly nurtured (and perhaps modified), could grow into new educational opportunity. The expanding need for commercial and administrative employees may find new sources of supply through re-education schemes such as that outlined above.

Social demand — or employment forecasting

A postulation of sixteen years of full-time education for all assumes, in effect, that education is provided in response to social demand, i.e. it is provided to all without regard to cost and, equally important, without regard to the availability of jobs appropriate to all those with higher education qualifications.

If education is made available solely in response to social demand, we can be confident that, for many years, current economic structures in Western Europe will not provide sufficient jobs at the level normally considered appropriate to those with higher educational qualifications. Already there is talk in Europe of the graduate bus driver, or the post-graduate factory foreman. These examples are not fanciful, for they can already be found in the United States of America.

If established expectations are not realised people become discontented. This is especially true of economic expectations. Politicians and educationists therefore face a dilemma. Shall education be provided in response to social demand? Or shall education be provided so that its output at different levels can be reasonably matched through employment forecasting?

It is likely that some compromise will be reached, but this compromise will probably include the development of a centrally organised employment forecasting agency charged with the task of informing schools and colleges, parents and children, of the forecasts of future employment in the different sectors and at all levels of industry, commerce and administration.

Careers guidance

Employment forecasting can never be perfectly accurate, but it can provide an extremely valuable source of information to those responsible for providing careers guidance either within or outside the educational system. Within the educational system, we can certainly expect to see an introduction and rapid expansion of careers guidance. Careers guidance cannot go on resting in the hands of all the teachers, for teachers vary very much in their knowledge of employment possibilities. It will become necessary for each educational institution of a reasonably large size (school or college) to appoint full-time careers advisory officers. Already some Local Education Authorities have set up central offices with a small research staff to study the employment market; and with a field staff to advise schools and colleges. Careers advice in most areas is at present far from sufficient to cope with the rapidly changing technologies we must expect in the future.

Careers guidance services will have to develop sophisticated techniques for providing information for each applicant in the following four areas:

1. discovery of the applicant's aptitudes,
2. assessment of achievement,

3. knowledge of employment opportunities (both short-term and long-term),

4. knowledge of further education possibilities.

Such knowledge cannot be obtained by one lonely individual in a school. The future careers guidance service must have national coverage, regionally specialised; must depend for support and information on national agencies centrally financed; and must become a personalised service applied with insight and sensitivity by highly trained staff.

The role of the teacher

We have already stressed the role of the teacher as a manager of learning resources; but the teacher has a role as counsellor which may have to link very closely with the careers guidance specialist. The teacher cannot be expected to know the entire range of employment opportunities, but he can be expected to know the individual pupil. Difficulties of personality, stresses of home background, physical characteristics or disabilities, artistic or cultural interests, all play a part in the appropriate relation of a pupil to fruitful and satisfying employment. In this area of knowledge, the teacher-counsellor is the essential adviser to the careers guidance officer.

Secondment of teachers

Yet the teacher-counsellor cannot carry out this function expertly unless he or she knows well the employment environment. The employment environment requires different social skills and operates through different hierarchical structures of authority from those of the school. Teachers therefore must have greater opportunities to experience employment on secondment outside the school in order to complete their equipment of knowledge as counsellors.

But there is a further major reason for secondment. It is necessary to keep the teacher up to date with the skills he is teaching. For business and administrative education, it has for example become essential to know the applications of computers to business data processing or to public administrative data processing. Secondment to employers utilising these techniques is the best way in which the applications of computers (as distinct from the theory) can be learnt — and subsequently taught.

The desirability of secondment, however, does not bring its achievement. There are a few cases each year in most Western European countries, but the few simply serve to emphasise the disparity between the need and its satisfaction.

Secondment on a desirable scale can probably not come about unless governmental funds are made available to finance seconded teachers as supernumerary employees, in business or public administration.

Visiting teachers from employment

It is not quite as difficult to discern some useful expansion of visiting teachers from employment as it is to envisage a reasonable increase of secondment.

Industrial and commercial employees are already contributing some of their practical expertise to education by teaching during the evenings. A more limited number of part-time teachers are released by their employers to teach during the daytime. The difficulty lies in the cost to the employer of releasing employees to teach during normal working hours.

However, it seems generally true that the larger the enterprise, in general, the more generous its personnel policy and the greater its interest in education and training. The enterprise in Western Europe continues to grow in size, so we may suppose that more employers will be willing in future to release employees to teach part-time during the day.

New traditions may need to be started in order to expand the size of the visiting teacher force from employment. We might well study the methods by which the *Hautes Écoles* in France have been able to attract back to part-time teaching their former members who occupy responsible positions in industry, commerce and administration. In the *Hautes Écoles*, the interplay between theory and practice is maximised by the interaction between the full-time teacher teaching theory, and the part-time teacher who brings complementary practical knowledge.

If this situation could be generalised in each country, both employee and student would gain.

International exchange of teachers

International exchange of teachers already takes place among countries speaking the same language. The English-speaking countries and the French-speaking countries have well-established schemes. In addition, quite substantial numbers of student teachers of modern foreign languages are enabled to spend up to a year in a school or college using the language as the mother tongue and/or language of instruction.

It is not at all easy, however, to find any sort of international exchange scheme for teachers of business and administrative subjects. The language barrier is, of course, one major difficulty, but the natural secrecy of business enterprises is another.

Interchange between the civil servants of the Western European countries is certain to increase through the developing links with the Council of Europe and the European Economic Community. Perhaps this experience will open a way to interchange of teachers. The way does not seem at all clear at present for a European exchange of teachers of business and administrative subjects. Advance, desirable though it may be, will probably have to await the growth of more Western European business concerns with branches in each country; a likely growth of interchange between local government officials in Western Europe; and a further clarification of the roles of major languages in European institutions.

Teachers, however, will be more and more encouraged (and financed) to attend summer courses or short conferences in other countries. The Council of Europe itself offers travel grants for such purposes. The availability of such finance should encourage international voluntary societies like the International Society for Business Education *(La Société Internationale pour l'Enseignement Commercial)* to expand its conference and course activities so as to bring together teachers of similar specialisms as frequently as possible.

A role for Europe

The commerce and administration of the various countries of Western Europe seem certain to draw together during the next decade. Are there ways then in which European institutions can assist or support the teachers of commerce and administration in adding a European component to their teaching?

There are already in existence, or planned, some European educational institutions. The European Economic Community had by 1972 set up six Common Market schools, mainly to provide for the children of politicians and administrators working for EEC. A European University is planned to open in Florence. The Council of Europe has been giving support to the European Cultural Centre (a non-governmental organisation) in Geneva for their European Civics Campaign. On a wider international scale, there is now an International Baccalaureate available in many European countries. Success in this examination provides admission qualifications to most European universities as well as to many universities in the rest of the world. The Council of Europe arranges many conferences and courses designed to discover a consensus of views among specialist educationists from all its member countries.

These examples serve to show that there is a role for Western European institutions to play in the setting up and expansion of educational agencies which could provide valuable services to all teachers, and perhaps especially to those in business and administrative education.

A Council of Europe educational consultant

A major conclusion of this study is that there is one valuable educational role at present not provided directly in Western Europe. It is the role of an educational consultant in business and administration for Western Europe.

Most countries employ specialist educational advisers. Their function is to become the eyes and ears of the Ministry of Education. Such men and women travel from school to school or college to college. Their specialist knowledge is available to all teachers. In addition, the educational consultant constantly discovers new ideas, interesting methods, and variations on old principles which can be transferred from one school to another or generalised over whole areas of the country. The effect is to raise the standards of education in the specialist subject throughout each nation.

It has become evident that there are many exciting ideas, many variations of teaching practice and learning principle currently taking place in the business and administrative education of Western Europe. These ideas and evolving practice could become available to all the different member countries if the Council of Europe could appoint its own educational consultant on business and administration education. Such a consultant would have no powers, but he would frequently travel from country to country transferring his newly gathered experience from one to another. His expert advice would be regularly available both to the Council of Europe and to all the individual member governments.

A final word to teachers

This study is the result of many meetings of senior educational advisers from the many countries associated through the Council of Europe. The results will be made available to governments and especially to Ministries of Education.

But, if the study ends on a desk in a ministry its effect will be very limited, because it is the individual teacher who is most concerned with the results of educational research. The study is therefore consciously directed towards the individual teacher who must translate into practical daily teaching terms his own vision of the future of education for business and administration.

SUMMARY

Chapter 1

1. The past twenty years have seen a revolutionary expansion and development of commercial education.

2. Public administration requires similar skills to those of business and draws largely upon the same sources of recruitment.

3. Technical industry employs a substantial sector of clerical and administrative staff.

4. Between one in two, and one in four of all employees in Western Europe are commercial, clerical or administrative.

5. Commercial and administrative education is gaining status in relation to traditional academic education.

6. A tripartite division of types of education is suggested:

(*a*) general academic education,

(*b*) general vocational education,

(*c*) specific vocational education.

7. Suitably designed general vocational education is equal in educational value to general academic education.

8. Terminal secondary examinations should cease to be designed solely for those entering higher education.

9. Employment forecasting will become necessary to support careers guidance.

10. General vocational education is not to be replaced in the school by specific vocational education.

Chapter 2

11. Looking backwards five years, we cannot easily discern a pattern in commercial and administrative education in Western Europe. Looking ahead five years, a pattern begins to emerge.

12. A pattern of description of commercial and administrative education by function of employment is suggested. Five levels are proposed:

(*a*) routine clerk,

(*b*) senior clerk,

(*c*) executive,

(*d*) higher executive,

(*e*) professional (e.g. accountant).

Examples from five countries are appended.

13. Occupations utilising the secretarial skills can be fitted to the pattern above.

14. Comprehensive secondary education is likely to grow and to incorporate commercial and administrative education.

15. Sandwich-style courses are commended in place of part-time day release.

16. Public education systems are likely to absorb, over a period of time, much of the commercial and administrative education currently provided privately.

17. Correspondence education is expected to be brought under public control.

18. Selected examples of special interest are given, e.g. Netherlands, student status for workers up to age 18.

Chapter 3

19. Bloom's taxonomy is used to illustrate a classification of educational objectives.

20. Quantitative analysis is required for syllabuses.

21. Aural comprehension and verbal skills need much greater attention.

22. Written communication skills require a practical approach.

23. Reference to sources is an office skill.

24. New methods of teaching are required for (*a*) the development of individual initiative and (*b*) a capacity for teamwork.

25. Citizenship education should not be neglected in commercial and administrative education.

26. Data processing demands an enhanced precision both in numeracy and literacy.

Chapter 4

27. The curriculum structure may have three major component parts:

(*a*) special subjects,

(*b*) complementary subjects,

(*c*) contrasting subjects.

28. A common core of subjects throughout Western Europe could be the following:

(*a*) the mother tongue,

(*b*) commerce or economics,

(*c*) number manipulation,

(*d*) a modern foreign language.

29. The curriculum at upper secondary level must follow naturally from lower secondary level *and* lead on naturally to higher education.

Chapter 5

30. Teaching to teach pupils to learn for themselves is important.

31. One third of the time-table is proposed for self-learning, self-teaching time.

32. Business games and administrative games are commended as a teaching method.

33. There is a need to integrate educational technology into normal teaching programmes.

34. There is no need to fear that educational technology will cause current teacher redundancy. Expansion of teacher forces is expected.

35. Educational buildings ought to be redesigned to fit new teaching methods.

Chapter 6

36. New examination methods are required.

37. Objectives of evaluation need clearer definition.

38. Current evaluation methods omit measure of some capacities important for employment.

39. Methods of scaling candidates vary widely from country to country.

40. Pass-rates vary widely from country to country.

41. A "tool-kit" of evaluation methods is suggested, i.e. several different measuring instruments.

42. A general tendency is seen towards a multi-sided evaluation structure including:

(*a*) essay-style tests,

(*b*) objective-style tests,

(*c*) course assessment by tutors,

(*d*) an oral assessment.

Chapter 7

43. Teachers need to keep up with three kinds of change, viz in:

(*a*) subject knowledge,

(*b*) pedagogic knowledge,

(*c*) technologies in employment.

44. Teachers need a wider knowledge of social structure.

45. Concurrent training may have advantages both for the teacher entering from conventional sources and for the teacher entering after some years in industry or commerce.

46. A pattern of teacher training is shown, related to level of teaching.

47. In-service training and re-training must be rapidly improved and extended.

48. Teacher training ought to include:

(*a*) general and social psychology,

(*b*) sociology,

(*c*) non-traditional teaching method,

(*d*) vocational guidance and personal counselling,

(*e*) aims and methods of out-of-school education.

49. The teacher as a counsellor is considered.

50. Probationary employment ought to be kept at one year.

51. National supervision and co-ordination is required for teacher training.

52. National centres are suggested for teacher training in commercial and administrative education.

Chapter 8

53. A modular system is required to enable people to enter higher education later in life.

54. Employment forecasting will be required.

55. Careers guidance ought to be extensively developed.

56. Secondment of teachers requires government finance.

57. International exchange of teachers needs encouragement and financial support.

58. The Council of Europe is recommended to consider the appointment of an educational consultant for business and administration.

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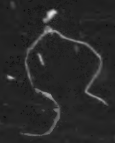

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